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GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MADHYA PRADESH

NARSIMHAPUR



Narsinghaji Temple, Narsimhapur

MADHYA PRADESH DISTRICT GAZETTEERS

NARSIMHAPUR

By

P. N. SHRIVASTAV

District Gazetteers Department
MADHYA PRADESH
BHOPAL

1971

Price Rs. 16/-

Copies can be had from :

Controller, Printing and Stationery,
Central Book Depot, Ibrahimpura,
Bhopal (M. P.)

Printed by
CHANDRA PRINTERS
Sultania Road, Bhopal

PREFACE

Narsimhapur is a small district situated in the centre of Madhya Pradesh. It is rich in history and fertile in land. In its own way, it has always occupied an individual place in the general scheme of things pertaining to this region. In this District lies an insignificant place called Bhatra which yielded in 1872 a sand-stone hand-axe which is reputed to be the earliest pre-historic relic of Man discovered in India. The earliest inhabitants of Narsimhapur were palaeolithic men contending for mastery in the primeval world against Hexa protodon, Tetra protodon, pachyderms, proboscidians and ruminants. At Bijori there is a rock-shelter with painting in red-ochre wherein the primitive artist drew scenes of hunting, battle, dance, music and elopement. Bilthari of Narsimhapur District was Balisthali where Raja Bali is reputed to have performed his supreme sacrifice. There is the belief that the Pandavas passed considerable period of their exile at Barman. Bachai is the place where Keechak paid the price of his life for having cast an amorous glance at Droupadi. At Bohani, according to a tradition, lived Jashraj and Bachhraj, the father and uncle of the redoubtable Alha and Udal of Prithviraj Raso fame.

The historical past for Narsimhapur seems to have commenced with the beginning of the second century A. D. when the Satavahanas held sway over this region. The Imperial Guptas came to the scene in the fourth century. The Kalachuris came to power in the ninth century. The Raj-Gond dynasty ruled for four centuries, either as over-lords or as tributaries. Sangram Shah, the 48th ruler, was a powerful figure in the history of Gondwana. He built the fort of Chauragarh of immortal fame. It was at Chauragarh that Durgavati's son Bir Narayan was slain by Asaf Khan who brought this region under the Mughal domination in 1564. In 1781, Chauragarh, along with a large area surrounding it, passed under the Sagar Pandits, only to be possessed by the Bhonslas in 1799. After the Battle of Sitabuldi in 1817, Narsimhapur came under the British rule.

Narsimhapur passed through untold hardships in the medieval times. The three Pindari leader Amirs Khan, Chitu and Karim Khan - the last two being the proteges of Scindias, wrought havoc here. Nawab of Bhopal made frequent raids and plundered indiscriminately. Sadik Ali, the able Bhonsla Governor of Narsimhapur, ruled well but squeezed the peasantry dry, reminding us of Morton's Fork of Tudor England. The early British administrators of this District were die-hard, unimaginative Imperialists and made exorbitant assessments, leading to a large-scale exodus and forests swallowing up arable lands. It was Col. Sleeman, one of the few British Officers who were known for efficiency as well as benevolence, who brought respite to the people. But the District had to experience yet another misfortune, a century later, when Deputy

Commissioner I.G. Bourne ruled like a Sultan, held Durbars and browbeat the landlords to pay incredibly large donations for War Funds.

The people of this District are virile, hardy and spirited. They faced bravely all the fiery ordeals of medieval tyranny and political suppression of the foreign rulers The Bundela Rising of 1842 and the Great Revolt of 1857 tested the mettle of the people.

Gazetteer-writing is a veritable research work. Much more so is the History Chapter of this monumental writing. The difficulties one faces are double-fold. First, it requires an ingenuity of first order to relate all relevant facts to the confines of the district border. It is by no means a smooth sailing. The existing boundaries are hardly fifteen years old. Even the old boundaries are traceable mostly within the period of a century. Accretions and secessions in each case have been many and various. What appears to be a constant today has had innumerable co-efficients in the past, giving the district different geographical and historical values. One has to sift and choose the bewildering data, eliminate all broken cords, and concentrate on all that corresponds to the present contents of the revenue district. It is a task demanding a wealth of knowledge of all places-great and small, old and new - a thorough acquaintance with the physical geography, and an insight into the economic significance of the potentialities of the areas falling within the district. A huge, multi-storeyed historical edifice is to be built on a very narrow but specific base. A loose brick, a weak masonry, an unwanted projection, an uncovered gap will detract from the solid worth of the structure. One cannot afford to miss a single important link, neither can one induct an extraneous matter, lest the work is found incomplete or digressive.

Secondly, one finds the ancient history of the district a most baffling piece of research. As it is, our knowledge of this period is yet scanty, inspite of the fact that several Indian scholars have now appeared in the field to bring to light the vast echelons of centuries lying buried in the womb of darkness. The difficulty becomes all the more acute when one realises that the district, now so called, was non-existent in the hoary past. The modern place-names were either not there at all or had different nomenclature. It becomes extremely difficult to weave a fabric of convincing hue with the help of such gossamer stuff. There are no books, no records. Century after century rolls by as in a dream-sequence. It is only a chance-discovery of an archaeological find-a stone, a coin, an inscription, a legend-which becomes a fccal determinate. Around this slender base, one has to weave, spider-like, the thin but durable web. To achieve this difficult aim, one has to cast the net far and wide in the hope of coming across a useful catch. One may succeed or one may fail, Most often one fails, for it is a throw in the dark. All love's labour is lost. But one has to be a Robert Bruce. On the stepping-stones of the ashes of failure, one has to rise to initiate fresh efforts.

Such is the fate of the historian. From chaos, he sojourns towards cosmos. He has to conquer darkness and, God-like, exclaim let there be light. Out of the unknown, he has to create a living image. His task is unenviable. He casts a bewildered look here and there. With infinite patience he digs for the prize At best, his method is empirical. If he is patient, diligent, imaginative and fortunate, he may, at last, come across some fortuitous data which will lead him on to a surer path.

Thus, it is far more difficult to write the history of a district than to deal with the account of a dynasty or a whole region. The canvas in the latter case is bigger. There is a certain continuity. The principle of cause and effect is more in evidence. Geography does not act as a delimiting factor. But the district history is rigid and elusive. It has the compulsive trait of a classical tune. One may soar high or scale low, but one has to be ever close to the burden of the song-the District.

A word regarding the preparation of Narsimhapur Gazetteer. The preliminary drafts of all the chapters were ready in 1964, when Mr. K. P. Choube was the State Editor. Editing was done in 1965, and finalisation in 1966. Government of India communicated their approval in 1967. The State Advisory Board for Gazetteers approved the draft in 1968. The difficulties in printing have somewhat delayed its publication.

For the preparation of the Narsimhapur Gazetteer, the State Editor is thankful to Messrs. L. C. Goswami, S. D. Guru, Vishnu Saran, M. M. Muley, P. K. Bhatnagar, R. R. Jain, R K. Shrivastava, M. P. Dubey. K. A. S. Bais, K. M. Wahal, Mrs. N. Sen, V. S. Dhagat, K. R. R. C. Nair, Dr. R. C. Munje, T. S. Sarma, S. M Rastogi and N. P. Pande.

Mr. S. D. Guru, Assistant State Editor, besides editing the History Chapter, shouldered all administration work involved in the printing of the Gazetteer. Dr. R. K. Jain rendered useful help at all stages. Messrs. R. K. Nayak, Vijay Jain, K. S Sharma, and A. M. Sharma helped, along with others, during the printing stage. Mr. Vishnu Saran was Special Officer for the printing of the Gazetteer. Mr. Nawal Kishore prepared Index. The maps were prepared in the Gazetteers Department by Mr. Yaduraj Singh under the supervision of Mr. N. P. Pande.

For the photographs appearing in the Narsimhapur Gazetteer, the State Editor is grateful to Mr. P. K. Bhatnagar and Mr. Anand Hatvalne, for most of the photographs, the Directorate of Tube-Wells and to Mr. K. S. Bhatnagar, Collector of Narsimhapur.

It is with a deep sense of grateful feelings that the State Editor acknowledges the guidance and inspiration given by Dr. P. N. Chopra, Editor, District Gazetteers, Ministry of Education and Youth Services, Government of India, and valuable suggestions sent by the learned Officers of his Unit.

Bhopal
30th March, 1971

P. N. Shrivastav
State Editor

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CHAPTER I

GENERAL

Narsimhapur District occupies the central part of Madhya Pradesh and a portion of the upper Narmada valley bordered by the Vindhyas and the Satpuras to the north and the south, respectively. It is the western central District of Jabalpur Commissioner's Division, and it lies between the latitude 22° 45'N., and 23° 15'N., and the longitude 78° 38'E., and 79° 38'E.[1] The northern most point of the District is above 17 miles (27.36 km.) south of the Tropic of Cancer. The Bombay-Allahabad railway line traverses the District from west to east and the headquarters town is 50 miles (80.47 km.) west of Jabalpur. Narsimhapur District is roughly quadrangular in shape, elongated in the east-west direction. The greatest length of the District along the Narmada, east to west is about 75 miles (120.70 km.) while it measures only 40 miles (64.5 km.)[2] from north to south. The northern boundary runs along with the boundaries of Raisen, Sagar, Damoh and Jabalpur districts and the southern boundary is common with those of Chhindwara and Seoni districts. In fact, Jabalpur and Seoni districts occupy north-easterly and south-easterly positions, respectively, and also close the District in the east. Hoshangabad District is reached across the western boundary. Physically, the Narmada forms the northern boundary, except in the middle sector, where the boundary runs along either way of the Vindhyan scarp. The entire western boundary and a part of the eastern boundary are formed by the Dudhi river and Soner nullah, respectively, both of which join the Narmada from the south. The rest of the boundary runs along the natural features. The area of the District is 1,979 sq. miles[3] (5,125.55 sq.km.). The population of the District according to 1961 Census is 412, 406.

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1. Readings of latitude and longitude of the District are 22° 36' N., and 23° 15' N., and 78° 27' E, and 70° 38' E, respectively.

2. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer. 1906, p. 1. However, the Survey of India, Quarter-Inch topo-sheets show that it is 42 miles.

3. Surveyor-General of India. The area according to the Director of Land Records, Madhya Pradesh, in 1961-62 was 1,981.4 sq. miles or 5,131.7 sq. km.

The District and the head-quarters town both owe their identical names to the temple of Narsimhaji, the God's incarnation in the form of a lion-headed man, according to the Hindu mythology. After 1782, a Jat plunderer shifted from the head-quarters village of Chawarpatha *pargana* under the Marathas to the present head-quarters of the District, then only a village known as Gadariya Kheda and later called as Chhota Gadarwara. He plundered the *Jagirdars* of Dilheri and Pithera and built a palace and the temple of Narsimhaji at this place by using some plundered material. It was he who renamed the village after the temple. However, the District was not known then as Narsimhapur and was still known after Shahpur, the old *pargana* head-quarters.

Under the Gonds and the Marathas, the District was divided among the administrative and military officers and hereditary chiefs of the region, the extent of whose territories was changed from time to time according to their personal power and influence. Chauragarh was a strong hill fort during the Gond and Maratha periods. Chawarpatha, Barha, Sainkheda, Gadarwara, Shrinagar and Shahpur all have been at one time or the other, the head-quarters of the *parganas* of their names. Singpur, a village founded towards the end of the 18th Century, was the head-quarters of the Maratha *Amil* or *Kamavisdar*. Tendukhera and Chawarpatha, were among the Panch-Mahals of Deori along with the three others, Naharmhow, Gourjhamar and Deori, now in Sagar District. Chichli and Gangai were Gond estates even under the Marathas, while Barha and Paloha, respectively, were the estates granted by the Sindhia to Chitu and Karim Khan, the well-known Pindari leaders. Narsimhapur the present head-quarters of the District was a village named Gadariyakheda inhabited near the temple of Khairmai. It came into prominence only after 1782, with the rise of the Jat chief who built the two temples of Narsimhaji and was conferred the title of 'Bhonsla Bahadur' by the Bhonsla of Nagpur. However, the village was still regarded as in the Shahpur *pargana*. Narsimhapur was annexed to the British territory under the agreement, made after the battle of Sitabuldi in 1817, which was subsequently confirmed by the treaty of 1826. At the time of the secession to the British, in 1818, the District was known as Gadarwara, but Narsimhapur seems to have been selected as its capital and the name was soon altered. A *kothi* for the residence of the Commanding Officer of the British and Indian troops stationed at Narsimhapur was built and after the removal of the troops, the District Court was located in this *kothi*. In 1825, the trans-Narmada *parganas* of Chawarpatha and Tendukheda, forming two of the Panch-Mahals of Deori, were placed under the British management by the Sindhia in part payment for the Gwalior contingent and attached to the Narsimhapur District. These were added to full British sovereignty by the treaty of 1860. After the *pargana* divisions of Maratha period were abolished in 1876, Narsimhpur Tahsil contained Srinagar, Bachai, and Narsimhapur *parganas*, and the Gadarwara Tahsil, that of Shahpur, south of the Narmada,

while the Chawarpatha *pargana* to the north of the Narmada was divided between the two Tahsils. Under the plan drawn up for reducing the number of districts, Narsimhapur District was abolished in the year 1836 and was annexed to Hoshangabad District as a Sub-Division. This measure proved, however, to be of doubtful expediency and hence, after the Bundela rising of 1842, its status of a District was restored in 1843. Hirapur *taluq* was also transferred from Jabalpur to Narsimhapur District (Tahsil Narimhapur) at this time. Upto 1876 the small tract north of the Narmada constituted a third tahsil with its head-quarters at Chawarpatha. The Chawarpatha Tahsil was, however, admittedly too small, its only *raison d'etre* being the difficulty of communication between villages north and south of the Narmada in rains. In that year the Chawarpatha tahsil was abolished and its villages were divided between the Nasimhapur and Gadarwara tahsils, those lying west of the Sagar—Kareli road being added to Gadarwara and those east to Narsimhapur. This arrangement has worked satisfactorily with the construction of a bridge over the Narmada. In 1902, tracts of 34 and 15 sq. miles of Government forest were transferred to Narsimhapur from Sagar and Damoh, and 11 villages, with an area of 15 sq. miles and a population of 1,567 persons, to Narsimhapur from Sagar. Four sq. miles of Government forest were transferred to Sagar from Narsimhapur. Narsimhapur thus acquired a strip of territory to the north of the Narmada which formerly separated the tracts of Chawarpatha and Hirapur. The principal village transferred was Pithera. The revised totals of area and population were 1976 sq. miles and 3,15, 518 persons, respectively.

In the year 1932, the District, once again after 89 years, was merged with the Hoshangabad District and formed a Sub-Division. The reorganisation of States in the Indian Union, effected on the 1st November, 1956, was associated with an important event in the history of the District and on the 1st October, 1956, Narsimhapur was restored to its original form and status of a District considering its area, population, revenue and past history.

The District is now divided, for revenue and general administration, into two tahsils, viz., Narsimhapur and Gadarwara, the former occupying the eastern half. The Sub-Divisional system has been introduced in the District and each tahsil forms a separate Sub-Division. Each tahsil has a Tahsildar with some Naib-Tahsildars. The area and population of Narsimhapur and Gadarwara tahsils are as follows[1] :—

Tahsil	Area as per Department of Land Records Sq. Miles	Sq. Km.	Population 1961 Census
Narsimhapur	882.8	2286.3	2,07,483
Gadarwara	845.6	2190.1	2,04,923
TOTAL	1,981.4	5,131.7	4,12.406

1. Narsimhapur District Census Hand-Book, 1961, pp. 3 and xlii.
Areas of tahsils given above do not include forest areas.

The police administration is managed through 10 Police Stations established in the different parts of the District. The Police-Stations at Narsimhapur, Gotegaon, Themi, Kareli, Suatala (Daulata) and Mungwani are located in Narsimhapur Tahsil, while those at Gadarwara, Sainkheda, Gotitoria and Tendukheda are located in Gadarwara Tahsil.

TOPOGRAPHY

The District occupies a part of the eastern Narmada valley, a continuous chain of the Satpura hills bordering on the south and a section of the Vindhyan scarp on the north. The natural divisions of the District stretch into three narrow belts parallel in an east-west direction. The major part of the District is situated south of the river Narmada, which is a natural feature diversely affecting the District.

The Narmada Valley

The most fertile and populous part of the District lies in the first of the alluvial basins of the Narmada. The valley begins just beyond the Marble Rocks at Bheraghat, about 15 miles (24.1 km.) by road beyond the eastern boundary of Narsimhapur District and extends as far as Handia in the Hoshangabad District, a distance of nearly 250 miles (402.34 km.). Within the limits of Narsimhapur District the valley extends east to west across its length. From north to south, the width of the valley is about 20 to 30 miles (32.19 to 48.28 km.). The general level of the valley is 1,100′-1,200′ (335.28 to 365.76 meters) above mean sea level. Geologically, the basin is one among those created by the sedimentation of marine lakes, and is more or less intimately connected and developed in an east-west fault zone. The face of the Satpura Range, overlooking the valley is generally almost parallel to the river and rises to about 500′. (152.40 metres) above the lowlands except in the south-west where Gotitoria and Premnarayan hills abruptly rise over 1,200′ (365.76 metres) from the valley. The southern scarp of the Vindhyas, though generally abrupt, is an irregular alignment, limiting the valley across the Narmada in the north.

The rich unbroken alluvial tract south of the Narmada is the major portion of the valley and is drained by the tributaries of the Narmada, viz., the Sher, the Shakkar, the Dudhi and their feeders. This portion of the valley slopes gently towards the north and is now cleared of its dense forests for cultivation. The narrow valley is covered with rich alluvium, about 20′ (6.66 metres) thick and resting over the conglomerates and sandy clays. It is admirably levelled except for the occasional mounds of gravel or *kankar*, generally occupied for village sites, and the slowly developing hollows along the water channels, caused by soil erosion. The compact black soil is generally fertile and suitable for the construction of artificial tanks and reservoirs. During the pre-historic and

historic periods this part has always been the seat of peaceful human settlement and has provided most natural route for an east-west communication. As the valley in the District is less accessible from the north than from Jabalpur in the east, and Nimar and Hoshangabad in the west, the course of political and industrial developments has usually been late in reaching this District.

The valley north of the Narmada is rather narrow being closely bound in the north by the southern scarps of the Vindhyas, eroded and broken at intervals. This valley is drained by the Biranj nullah which flows to the south-west and joins the Narmada near Hirapur and Timarawan villages. The valley is similar in nature to its counterpart across the Narmada, while near the foot-hills the soil mantle is thin, eroded, gravelly, damp and occupied by the low grade forests. Until recently, before the construction of Burmanghat bridge across the Narmada, the northern valley was isolated by the hurdles of the great river and the Vindhyan ranges. However, the culture and thinking in this region is more akin to the Bundelkhand plateau in the north than the valley in the south. The impact of this fact on the history of the region is best illustrated by the dauntless Bundela rising of 1842, affecting the northern valley only and exposing the little influence of the British power seated at Jabalpur.

The Satpura Hill Range

The Satpura hills are aligned in a continuous range from Amarkantak in the east, to the proximity of Cambay in the west. The northern slopes of the Range stretch in the south of the District, throughout its length. They are mostly composed of sandstones and shales of very old origin, mostly of Gondwana age and dissected by the water action through ages. The hills are high in the west and form broad table lands, separated from each other by the deep and narrow channels of streams. They rise suddenly over 1,000′ (304.80 metres) from the plains in the north. The important peaks in this part are Bariadhana 2,679′ (919.09 metres), Piplakachhar, 2,587′ (788.52 meters), Nandkot Pahar 2,585′ (787.91 meters), Ghora Pahar, 1,879′ (572.72 meters), Putri Toria, 1807′ (550.77 meters) and Devi Toria hill, 2,105′ (641.60 meters). The highest peak in the District is Unchakhera peak on the Narshimhapur-Chhindwara boundary east of Dudhi river. It rises to 2,999′ (904.00 meters)[1] from the Mean Sea Level. East of Shakkar, the Satpuras are represented in the District by a narrow belt of foot-hill country running towards the east along the boundary for some distance and ultimately dispersed into a country of low-hills intermixed

1. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, 1906, p. 6. However, the latest reading of the Survey of India Topo-sheet No. 55 J shows Unchakhera as 2,983′ (908.2 metres). Topo-sheet No. 55 J/NE shows Kokripani peak in Narsimhapur District as 3,079′ (938.45 metres) high which comes to be the highest point.

with the valleys of the Macharewa and the Sher rivers. This range rises to over 200′ (60.96 meters) in the hills, south-east of Dilheri. On the northern slopes of the range, the erosion has exposed a limestone bed which in the form of soft-stone extends towards Shrinagar in an east-north-east direction. The eastern section of the Satpuras, south of Bachai and Srinagar is the highest, rising over 2,000′ (609.60 meters) along the 'V' shaped boundary of the District, the interior being degraded by the intersecting valleys of the Macharewa, the Sher and the Umar. Obviously, the residual hills are projected for a few miles from the south-west and south-east and a number of spurs stand between the intermittent valleys.

The Satpura hills are covered with thick forests. These are also the main hideouts of the fauna in the District which consists of a large number of wild species. This region, in the past, was less attractive owing to its poor mantle of soil, scanty chances of agriculture, and easy communication and settlements of any significant size being remote. However, this region served as a habitat of the simple, short-sighted, less adaptive but rigorous people of the pre-Aryan tribal clans who abandoned their small clearings in the valley and retreated to the up-hill country. Some of the steep-sided and flat-topped hills provided good chances for the construction of forts and fortresses during the period of medieval history. Chauragarh fort was a famous military centre for several centuries and commanded the western part of the Gondwana.

The Vindhyachal Range

The southern scarp of the Vindhyan plateau, though generally abrupt, is an irregular alignment along the northern boundary of Chawarpatha tract, north of the Narmada. They belong to the Vindhyan series of rocks consisting of hard masses of red sandstones, with alternations to shale and limestone. While the crests overlook the valley about 12 miles (19. 31 km.) wide in the Tendukhera tract, they form a mass of hills very close to the Narmada in the eastern tract of Hirapur. The isolated peaks rise to about 1,500′ (457. 20 meters) in the west but they form a difficult plateau over a height of 1,750′ (533. 40 meters) in the east. The important peak heights on the plateau are 2,136′ (651.05 meters) and 2,167′ (660.50 meters). The hills in the Hirapur tract cover an area over 70 sq. miles (181. 30 sq. km.) and are perhaps the wildest in the District as the passes from the plain are difficult of access, the southern margin of the country being more broken and precipitious than the table-land further north. Originally, the whole range was covered with forests and wilderness but by now the western portion, being more accessible, has been cleared to a great extent for settlement, agriculture and grazing cattle.

DRAINAGE

Nearly the whole of the District, except a small portion of the Vindhyan plateau, north of Hirapur, forms part of the Narmada drainage system. This system is developed on a long narrow fault zone between the hard masses which formerly were a compact mass of the southern plateau. The valley slants towards the west and the consequent river Narmada forms the main channel of the drainage system. The channel of the river hugs more on the side of the Vindhyas in the north and divides the valley into two unequal parts, viz., the northern and the southern. The subsequent streams join the Narmada more or less at right angles along the strikes of the old masses. These tributaries as compared to the major river, are very small and narrow. The subsequent streams are numerous and flow into the Narmada from the north and the south parallel to each other. The important tributaries from the south are the Dudhi, the Shakkar, the Barurewa, the Sher and the Umar. The Hiran river and the Biranj nullah are the major feeders of the Narmada from the north. Most of the southern tributaries have established themselves deep into the eroded Satpuras, each having a small dendritic pattern of its feeders. The strike valleys of the tributary streams are wider and more open in the south-east where there has been more erosion. In the south-west the streams are deeper and the hard escarpments overlook the valleys of the Duhdi, the Chitarewa and the Sukha nullah. Meanders are marked most on the flat and soft beds. In the Narmada valley, the Dudhi, the Shakkar and the Sher have the well-marked meanders. A few (river) islands are also formed in the course of the Dudhi. In the hill region of the Satpura the Hara, the Shakkar and the Sher have a zig-zag course. The zig-zag course of the streams on the hills are of more permanant nature and mostly due to the variation in the hardness of the eroded rocks along the strike rather than the volume of water acting upon the newly deposited soft beds, as in the main valley of the Narmada. It is difficult to detect the traces of river-capture in the region. However, a few very small streams flowing in an obsequent direction to the main valley may be sited near Hirapur, east of Chawarpatha and near another Hirapur at the confluence of the Hiran river and the Narmada. A few streams, south of Dilheri and Kishanpur also flow obsequently into the Shakkar. The course of the Macharewa from Bijori to the crossing of the Narsimhapur-Lukhnadon road is obsequent to the Narmada. The small streams terminating into a tank north of Barheta are probably the only inland drainage lines in dry season in the District. The only tributaries flowing parallel and very close to the major consequent river in the valley are the Umar nullah and the Bhainsa nullah.

The area north of Hirapur and Pithera is a high plateau escarping to the south but sloping towards the north. The plateau drains towards the north through the upper streams of the Bearma which forms part of the Gangetic drainage system.

During rainy season, the rivers and streams of the District are flooded for the four months of June, July, August and September, which cause obstructions to communication. The floods come suddenly and in great force. Although, the channels are very deep from the general level of the valley, the Narmada has crossed limits several times and in 1961, its water even touched the railway over-bridge at Hoshangabad. The streams in the hill regions are turbulent but in the valley they are gentle. The fall in the course of the Narmada is less than 2 feet (0.61 meter) a mile in the Distrrict. In the whole of its 80 miles (128.75 km.) length in the District there is only one water-fall of about 10′ (3·05 meters) opposite Umaria, north-east of Narsimhapur. The beds are rocky and the banks are precipitous. The water resources of the rivers cannot easily be harnassed either for irrigation or generation of electricity. Sheet erosion is not well-marked in the District but the alluvial soil in the immediate neighbourhood of the streams is rendered unculturable due to receding and widening gully erosion. However, the phenomenon is not widespread over the plains. The water in the rainy season is generally muddy.

During the dry season most of the streams become dry and water is available in the channels of the major streams only. In the course of the Narmada the volume of water is not regular. While there are fords that can be crossed by a man on foot, there are deep pools of water behind the ridges of rocks across the river. Ferry boats are available to cross the river at suitable points. In the dry beds of streams, the nearby villagers get their drinking water at a few feet and sometimes only at a few inches deep.

The Narmada

It is the principal river of the District which rises in the plateau of Amarkantak (22°40′ : 81°45′) in Shahdol District and after flowing through Mandla and Jabalpur Districts forms the northern boundary of the District from Bhikhanpur (23°36′ : 79°36′) to Sankal (23°36′ : 79°21′), a distance of about 25 miles. The course of the river is from east to west. From its confluence with the Hiran, a tributary from the north to the confluence of the Biranj nullah (23°6′ : 78°45′), the river crosses the District for a distance about 40 miles (64.37 km.) and then again flows along the northern boundary. The river is crossed by the Central Railway and the parallel road at Bhikampur near Bikrampur Railway Station. Another road crosses at Burman or Barmhan Ghat. Ferry services are available to cross the river at Bel Kheri, Jamunia, Ghatpipria, Ratikanar, Sankal, Bamhori, Ghurpur, Barmhan, Bilthari, Tharari, Hirapur, Palohaghat, Patai, Anghor, Piparpani, Pitras, Boras Umra and Sirsiri when the river is moderately flooded. The river is mostly fed by the southern tributaries, viz., the Umar, the Sher, the Shakkar and the Dudhi. The Hiran and the Biranj are the only tributaries worth mentioning.

from the north in this District. The total course of the Narmada in the District is about 100 miles (160.93 km.).

The Narmada is commonly considered to form the boundary between the north India and the south, (the reckoning of the Hindu year generally differing on either side of it). At numerous places on the course of the Narmada, and especially at spots where it is joined by another river, are groups of temples where annual gatherings of pilgrims take place. Every year a considerable number of pilgrims start to perform the *Pradakshina* of the Narmada, i. e., to walk from its mouth at Broach to its source at Amarkantak on one side and back on the other, which is regarded as the highest religious performance. The Narmada is one of the most sacred seven rivers variously referred to in the Hindu religious books other than Rig Veda, Ramayan and the Sutras of Panini. It is supposed to confer sanctity on all streams and lakes within a radius of say 30 miles (48.28 km.). This river was known to Ptolemy and the author of Periplus as the Namados or Namnadios, but was not noticed by Megasthenes. The *Rewa khand* of the *Skanda Puran* is a chapter devoted to the story of the birth of the Narmada of which it relates many legends. The river is said to have sprung from the body of Lord Shiva, after the performance of great penance on the Riksha Mountain (a part of the Vindhyachal), whence it acquired its great virtues. The legend further relates how the river was created in the form of a lovely damsel whose beauty captivated the gods and brought them all to her feet. Shiva laughed when he saw the enamoured gods and named her Narmada or delight-giving in consequence. In another legend while describing the descent of the most sacred river, the Ganges from the heaven the Narmada is said to be one of its seven channels. In the central part of India, the Narmada is held to be far more sacred than any other stream. Even Ganga, the deity of the river of the same name, is obliged to come and dip in the waters of the Narmada once a year. She comes in the form of a coal-black cow, but returns home pure white, free from all sins.

A mere sight of the Narmada is equivalent to a bath in the Ganges and such are its virtues that all sins of the person who sees or dips into it are removed. Another name of the river is Shankari, the daughter of Lord Shankar or Lord Shiva and all smoothened pebbles rolling on its bed are said to be the emblems of the God. The well-known saying in the region is *Narmada Ke Kankar Utte Shankar* (Each Narmada pebble is God Shankar). These emblems known as *Banalinga* are much sought for daily worship by the Hindus. There are few temples of the goddess Narmada in which the image is carved according to literary descriptions.

The Sher River (The Tiger)

This river rises at 22°34′ N.: 79°41′ E., east of Lakhnadon in Seoni District. After a north-westerly course of about 80 miles it falls into the Narmada at

Rati Karar in Narsimhapur District. It is crossed by a fine stone bridge at Sonai Dongri on the Nagpur-Jabalpur road in Seoni, and by a railway bridge about eight miles east of Narsimhapur. Its principal tributaries are the Macharewa, the Barurewa and the Umar. Its bed is generally rocky and its current rapid, scoring its bank with ravines on either side. Coal was found in the bed of the river near Sihora in Narsimhapur. Mungwani and Bilkhedi are the important villages located on its banks.

The Macharewa River (The Muddy River)

It is the major tributary of the Sher. It rises in Seoni District and flows through the Satpura hills for the greater part of its course, a length of 40 miles (64. 37 kms). it is essentially a mountain torrent, and its rapid stream scores the country with ravines on the sides of its course. Coal measures are exposed in the river about two miles above its junction with the Sher.

The Barurewa River (The Sandy Rewa or Narmada)

It is a stream which rises in the hills south-west of Bachai and flows north-west in a tortuous course past Singhpur, being joined by several other small streams after they have entered the plain. It is crossed by a large railway bridge a few miles west of Narsimhapur and falls into the Sher river at a short distance from the junction of the Sher with the Narmada, after a course of about 30 miles (48.28 km.). Its bed is sandy, occasionally utilised for melon crops during the dry seasons.

The Shakkar River

The river with its name Shakkar meaning sugar, rises about 12 miles (19.31 km.) north of Amarwara in Chhindwara District and flows through Narsimhapur in a north-westerly direction joining the Narmada near Sokalpur after a total course of about 70 miles (112.65 km.). It passes Harrai in Chhindwara and Shahpur, Gadarwara, and Paloha in Narsimhapur District. It is crossed by a railway bridge near Gadarwara about two miles upstream. Coal was found exposed in the gorge where it leaves the Satpura range and enters the plain. Its chief tributary is the Chitarewa. The channel of the river is usually rocky with openings here and there with occurrences of small rich alluvial deposits. The stream is rapid. The river floods suddenly, and at Gadarwara people have been occasionally caught and over-whelmed while crossing its bed, which at the moment of their start may have been a stretch of land about 300 yards (274.32 meters) wide with a small stream flowing through it. Perhaps of account of this dangerous characteristic, the river was originally called 'Suar' or pig, and owes its present title to the fact that a Mohammadan gentleman who disliked the former name, emptied into it a cart-load of sugar.

The Chitarewa River (Sitarewa)

The river rises in the hills of Chhindwara District and joins the Shakkar after a course of about 50 miles (80.47 km.), a mile above the railway bridge at Patlon near Gadarwara. At Mohpani the exposed coal measures were worked in the bed of the river, but the seams are now under water. Hereafter the river passes the villages of Gangai and Chichli, facing each other on its banks. Its course is rocky and its stream rapid and irregular. The name is either Chitarewa, the Leopard river, or Sitarewa, Sita's river. Rewa was the old name of the Narmada and was adopted to signify a river generically.

The Dudhi River (The Milky Stream)

This river rises in Chhindwara and falls into the Narmada after a course of about 66 miles (106.22 km.) through the greater part of which it forms the western boundary of Narsimhapur and the eastern boundary of Hoshangabad. It has a north-westerly course and meanders now and then in the valley. It is crossed by a railway bridge near the villages of Khiria in Narsimhapur and Junheta of Hoshangabad. Its bed is sandy and is used for growing melons.

The Hiran River (The Black-Buck)

This is a small but rapid river rising in a tank in the village of Kundam in Jabalpur. It forms the boundary between the Narsimhapur and Jabalpur Districts for the last few miles of its course and joins the Narmada at Sankal on the border.

SPRINGS, SPRINGHEADS, WELLS AND TANKS

The rain water absorbed by the porous rocks or the joints and cracks in the hard rocks seeps underground and finds its passage to a vertical opening downward to the hard bed. This is a continuous process and feeds the streams, not only at their sources but also from the sides of their banks ahead. Wherever there is a sufficient down pour of rain water from the rock the springs become more marked and sometimes celebrated. Such noted springs are at Mekh near Manegaon, Kachhua-Don, Banda Pahar, Bariadhana, Bairdhana; Jogikhapa Kotri, Chichli, Kondia, Chirah, Saori, Hingpani and Kishanpur in the Malkuhi Reserved forest. The last three are in the foot-hills of the Vindhyas while the rest are located along the southern margin of the District.

The people living in the hilly tracts have to depend for their requirements of water in the streams and the occasional water-holes in the stream-bed during the summer. The villages on the plain can rely on the developed streams, but wells and tanks have also been dug to ensure the water supply. Ample water being available at a little depth in the valley, the people prefer wells for drinking water and for cultivation of vegetables and fruits. Tank water is used for

bathing, washing clothes and for use of the cattle in the plain. The villages or communities drinking tank water are always liable to be affected by the epidemics. Almost every village in the plain has a tank or a big pond. Tanks of some significance exist at Bagaspur, Barha, Narsimhapur, Biner, Chiriya Sainkheda, Sukhakheri, Gargata, Gourtala, Barehta, Sohawan, Rampur, Lathgaon, Sukri, Saliwada, Nonia, Kachhwa, Bachai, Kareli, Bohani, Sadumar, Bamhori, Khursipar, Chilachone Khurd, Jhiria, Nadia, Shrinagar, Nagwara, Bhalpani, Bedu,Keolari, Gangai, Ajansara and Gadarwara. The first eight of these ensure the water supply throughout the year. Most of the tanks are artificial creations. However, a few tanks have been created by damming a stream at a convenient point. The tanks at Ajansra, Chirchira, Saliwada, Bedu and Lathgaon may be classed into such semi-artificial reservoirs. In the case of the tank at Bedu, the downward stream remains dry during the winter and the summer presenting an example of the seasonal inland drainage. It is said that there is an underground supply of water in the tank at Saliwada. Again an interesting example of the villagers' engineering skill is seen at Sadumar where the tank was built by a landlord called Rao Sahib. The water is diverted to this tank from the embanked fields across a stream by constructing a temporary bridge over it.

History of some of the tanks in the District is traceable. The periods of their construction may be classified into Ancient, Medieval and Modern. The four tanks at Barheta and those at villages Noniya and Kachhwa are said to have been built by Raja Barat. The ruins lying buried under the village site are also supposed to be of his palace. The tank at Bohani was constructed sometime in the 12th Century. The northern or lower embankment is a part of the ruined stone palace said to belong to two brave chiefs, Jashraj, and Bachharai the father and uncle, respectively, of Alha and Oodal, the epic heroes of Mahoba. Three tanks at Bachai and one at Chilachone Khurd are said to have been built in the Gond period by Dhandu, a Gond Chief whose Garhi (fortress) at Bacha and a Garh on the Bachai hill-top are in ruins. The tanks at Sukhakheri, Khursipar and Sukri were constructed some two to three centuries ago probably, by some philanthropic persons. The tanks at Narsimhapur together with the temple of Narsimhaji were built by the Jat chief by the close of the 18th Century. The tanks at Gourtala, Saliwada. Biner, Banwari, Sahoan and Rampura were built by the respective landlords about 100 to 150 years ago. The Sainkheda tank was dug by the close of the last century, by a Sadhu residing at the village.

GEOLOGY

The rock formations of the District include the following :

Recent	Alluvium and soil
Cretaceous-Eocene	Deccan trap flows, dykes and sills.
Upper Carboniferous Middle Jurassic	Gondwana system
Late Precambrian	Vindhyan system
Archaean	Granites and gneisses Bijawar series.

Bijawar Series

Rocks of this group which have been co-related with the Dharwar system, and which consist of cherty limestones and breccia are found in the Chawarpatha tract to the north of the Narmada river. The rocks of this group south of the river, include phyllites, schists, quartzites and limestones. The limestones are dolomitic and often contain accessory minerals like quartz, epidote, diopside, garnet and mica. They are crystalline, white in colour and vary in texture. Graphitic schists have been recorded at a few places. Intrusive into these rocks are dolerites which have been altered to hornblende schists which are garnetiferous. Among the more unusual types observed are grunerite schists and tremolite schists.

Granites and Gneisses

Granite gneisses are found at places and these rocks consist of medium-grained gneisses composed of quartz, microcline, biotite and muscovite. Commonly they have been much crushed with the development of 'augen', structure, large pieces of quartz or felspar forming eyes in a fine quartz-sericite matrix. The gneisses are reported to be intrusive into the schists at places. It is felt that there are granites of more than one age in the District.

Pegmatites

Pegmatites are not uncommon in the gneisses and the metamorphic rocks of the District: Most of these are almost pure quartz but some contain mica as well. This mineral is, however, too small, and too badly flawed to be of any commercial interest. In one pegmatite near Kishanpur traces of copper were observed.

Vindhyan System

The Vindhyan system is represented in this District by the upper division which consists of fine hard red massive sand-stones with alternations of shales. The sand-stones show frequent ripple marks.

Gondwana System

The Gondwana system of rocks consist of at least 3,000 metres of fresh water sediments. They have been divided into two main series, the upper and the lower, with a distinct break between the two. The classification of the rocks of this system is as follows:—

Upper Gondwana	Jabalpur Series	
	Mahadeva Series	Bagra Stage Denwa Stage
Lower Gondwana	Barakar Series	
	Talchir Series	

The beds dip in general at very low angles to the north and are very much faulted. The age of these faults is usually uncertain but in cases it is unquestionably post Gondwana, for the Deccan trap flows have been shifted by the same disturbances.

Talchir

The Talchirs consist of green bouldery clays in which occasional sandy lenticles are met with. The boulders which are not very common, vary in size. Owing to the homogeneous nature of the Talchirs, their bedding planes are often obscure.

Barakar

The Barakars are made up of thick-bedded, often coarse felspathic sandstones, with subordinate beds of carbonaceous shales and coal.

Denwa

The Denwa rocks consist typically of alternations of beds of sand-stones and variegated clays. The clays are always calcareous and often contain numerous calcite nodules. They vary in colour between green, red and buff. The red ones are the most characteristic. Mottled red and white or green and white colour are also seen. The sand-stones are soft and conglomeratic. As a rule they do not occur in massive beds.

Bagra

The Bagras consist of conglomerates, variegated clays and limestones. The conglomerates have been formed from many different kinds of boulders like

-quartzite, banded jasper, etc. Occasional beds of coloured clay are noticed throughout the conglomerates. In the vicinity of crystalline limestones the Bagras are usually calcareous.

Jabalpur

The Jabalpur beds which are upto 150 meters in thickness, consist of massive sand-stone alternating with white clays. They may and often do, contain conglomerates, earthy haematite, coal, carbonaceous shale, red clay and beds of chert. The sandstones are massive and fine-grained. The earthy haematite is a nodular rock and in most cases the nodules are freely disseminated along the bedding planes and certain horizons in the sand-stones; but in some places they run into one another forming lenticular patches of haematite rock 0.5 meter or more in thickness with a maximum lateral extension of about 18 metres. The Jabalpur rocks lie with an unconformity over the Mahadevas. Fossil plants are exceptionally plentiful in these rocks. The material consists mainly of leaf impressions but some good patrifications have recently been found. Some 48 different kinds of fossil leaves have at one time or other been recognised in these rocks.

Deccan Traps

Flows of Deccan trap cover a large part of the District. The flow is not uniform in vertical section. The base consists of a thin porous layer of earthy basalt which passes into great thickness of hard basalt. The upper part of this is porous and passes with little or no break into the porous base of the next flow. The commonest is a fine-grained rock with augite and felspar with intersititial grains of augite, iron-ores and chlorophaeaite. The other frequent type is a medium-grained massive black basalt with olivine. Porphyritic and amygdaloidal flows have in addition been recorded. The traps have in addition been shown to be tilted and faulted at places.

Trap dykes and sills are rare in the crystalline rocks, common in the trap flows and very abundant in the rocks of the Gondwana system. These are composed of coarsely crystalline rock resembling gabbro in hand specimens. They are strongly porphyritic or doleritic at places. The main constituent minerals are always felspar, augite and iron-ores with olivine biotite, hornblende, quartz and apatite.

Alluvium and Soil

The uplands of the Satpuras are covered with a thin sandy soil which varies from place to place and depends on the nature of the underlying rocks. The traps yield a red soil. The Jabalpur rocks form a thin sandy soil. Denwas

produce a stiff red clay filled with *kankar* nodules, while the Bagra conglomerates give rise to very little soil. The metamorphics are covered with a thin black soil.

Alluvium is seen only in the Narmada plain and along the banks of the larger rivers. It consists for the most part of the fine siliceous debris washed from the nearest hills and mixed with vegetable humus. As the rocks forming these hills differ from place to place, there is a corresponding variation in the nature of the alluvium. When the alluvium is deep, it contains stiff yellow clay horizons.

ECONOMIC MINERALS

Asbestos

Thin veins of asbestos (chrysotile) occur near Bachai in the limestones but this is of no value. Occurrence of this mineral in the limestones elsewhere in this District is not improbable.

Building Stones

Building stones capable of being dressed are now obtained at Gotatoria from rocks which are probably Denwas. It has been quarried extensively in the past from Jabalpur sand-stones and could probably be obtained from any of the localities where the Jabalpur occur. As regard its quality it was formerly used for facing the bridge piers on the rail line at Bagra and in other places. The sand-stone is soft for use as a building-stone but it is very uniform and very easily dressed.

Stones of better quality could be obtained from the gneissses on the Sher river, from any of the numerous limestones of the Bijawar series, sand-stones of the Vindhyan system to the north of the river and from some of the trap dykes. A quarry of marble-stone exists near Bagaspur and some samples were reported in 1904 in somewhat favourable terms. The marble is mottled and slabs of a uniform colour are not generally obtainable.

Coal

Carbonaceous shales with thin partings of coal were noticed in a few places among the Jabalpur rocks. The coal seams are never more than a few centimetres in thickness and, judging by their out-crops, are very impure. They are of little value.

The occurrence of coal in Barakar rocks in the Sitarewa river near Mohpani evidently long known to the people was discovered by Ousley as early as in 1835. A colliery was opend in 1862. At Gotitoria, seams of coal were discovered

in 1892. Other occurrences of coal are at Patkuhi and west of Tundni. Four seams of coal, 3.35, 7.6, 1.8 and 1.5 metres in thickness had been proved in the Gotitoria region and the coal won from the mines at Gotitoria during the first 25 years of their existence may be placed at near one million tonnes. A total of about six million tonnes has been estimated for the three seams which are of good quality.

Clay

White clays are a feature of the Jabalpur group and are usually found in lenticular layers which may be anything upto three metres in thickness. The main deposits occur on top of the plateau south of Gadarwara and Narsimhapur. The clays are generallay sandy and most of them are white in colour, generally somewhat sandy and at places slightly micaceous. Majority of them may be useful as refractory clays. Important occurrences of clays are at Talaiya, Kokripani, Hingpani, Saonri, Haranpur hills, Bachai and Bokori.

Copper

Traces of copper-ore are seen in a pegmatite near Kishanpur but this is of no economic importance.

Copper-ore occurs at Barmhan disseminated through an argillaceous schist in the Bijawars. The band of rock in which the ore occurs was found to be 1.8 metres thick. The ore consists of blue and green carbonate. The average yield of copper from the carbonates was 28 per cent.

The ore was worked by the Narmada Coal and Iron Co., from about the year 1880 to 1890 but the working of the company was unprofitable and was abandoned.

Graphite

Graphite schists occur in the region of Kishanpur but no workable concentration of the mineral is recorded.

Hematite

Thin lenticles of earthy hematite occur in the Jabalpur rocks. These had been worked by the local iron smelters in the past, for slag heaps occur near them. But they are of no value now as a source of iron. The ore from some of the seams could be easily ground up and in that condition might have a value as a pigment. The best marked lenticles occur in the area between the Shakkar river and the Chhindwara-Narsimhapur road.

Hematite has been recorded near the mile-stone 11/31 on the Narsimhapur Lakhanadon road and Omarpani near Tendu Khera. The excellent quality of the ore manufactured at Omarpani attracted considerable attention between the year 1855-57 when the mode of occurrence of the ore and the methods of smelting were described. The ore was mined at Omarpani and consisted of hard, earthy red and brown hematite with occasional masses of specular ore irregularly distributed in fissures and hollows among the Bijawar limestones and quartzites. The old workings extended for 1½ furlongs (0.3 km.) in an east-west direction and are confined to a narrow zone of 18 metres. No estimate of the quantity available has been made.

Gold

The reported occurrence of gold in the sands of the Narmada river at Burunhan Kalan proved to be spangles of mica and speaks of pyrite.

Limestone

Limestones which are more dolomitic occur in the Bijawar formation and are particularly abundant west of Khairi and between the Shakkar and the Chhindwara-Narsimhapur road. They are all crystalline but vary in coarseness between wide limits Their predominant colour is white but may have a pink, yellow or blue grey tint. *Kankar* nodules occur in abundance in the soils derived from the Denwa clays. The cherty limestone and braccia are found in the Chawarpatha tract. These, as well as the Bagaspur marbles belong to the sub-metamorphic formation or the transition rocks.

Magnetite-Ilmenite

Sands which are partly magnetite and partly ilmenite occur in a small way in connection with all the trap intrusions. The villagers in the region south of Mohpani report that strangers come from time to time and wash these sands for "lodestone" used in medicine.

Mica

Mica is reported in the pegmatites of this District. Near Bandra Kalan some prospecting for mica has been carried out. This mineral is plentiful in some of the pegmatites but it is much too small to be of any use.

Ochre

Small lenses of earthy hematite are found along the northern border of Jabalpur beds, especially in the region between the Shakkar river and the Narsimhapur-Chhindwara road.

Quartzite

Large masses of a very pure quartz rock occur in the hills to the west of Kishanpur. These quartzites may be of some interest for manufacture of refractory bricks.

Road Metal

The best material for road metal and ballast could be obtained from any of the exposures of traps and the Bijawar limestones. The boulders of such rocks and granites brought down by the larger rivers would be best suitable for road metal.

Water

Existing water supplies suffice for the present population but have not been fully exploited. The crystalline rocks seem to be almost impermeable except on their weathered surfaces. Springs are very common where the permeable Gondwana rocks are found in contact with them. The rocks of the Talchir and Denwa groups are impermeable. The Bagras are very permeable. Water is not, as a rule, found in this formation but springs are extremely common at its junction with the underlying rocks. The Jabalpur rocks vary greatly in their permeability and perennial streams are, therefore, extremely common. Water supplies in the Deccan trap plateaus are obtained from shallow wells but in dry years all these are liable to fall. In the Narmada Plain, the upper parts of the alluvium are sandy and gravelly and absorb much water in the rainy season. Underlying this permeable surface is an impermeable yellow clay in which the base of wells is generally set. The maximum depth of the aquifer zones is found to vary between 200′ to 400′ (60.96 to 121.92 metres) below the ground level.

Seismicity

The District lies in the seismic zone from where earthquakes of only slight intensity are reported. Epicentre of no earthquake of any consequence has been located here in the past. The District has, however, occasionally experienced earthquakes originating in the Himalayan Fault Zone. During the Bihar-Nepal earthquake of the 15th January, 1934, the District came under intensity VI on Modified Mercalli scale. A few of the earthquakes which were felt at Narsimhapur are given below.—

Sl. No.	Date	Location of epicentre	Magnitude in ritcher scale	Remarks
1.	16th June,1819	Rann of Katch	8.0	Felt in the District
2.	12th June, 1879	Assam	8.7	-do-
3.	4th April, 1905	Kangra	8.0	-do-
4.	15th January, 1944	Bihar-Nepal	8.25	M.M. intensity VI at Narsimhapur

The earthquake with its epicentre in the Satpuras, occurring on the 14th March, 1938, though significant and widely felt elsewhere in the region was, however, not reported in the District.

Besides these some small earth tremors caused by local crustal adjustment of the ground are also reported from the area at times. But they are generally too small to be recorded by seismographs installed in the present Seismological Observatories.

FLORA

The flora of the District, according to H. G. Champion's classification falls under Group 4 (a), Tropical Dry (Mixed) Deciduos Forests. However, a few patches of forests in most of the villages may also be classified under Group 3 (a), Tropical Moist (Mixed) Deciduous Forests. The ground flora, as it originally existed, has given way to cultivation almost in the whole of the Narmada valley and has been greatly disturbed on the Satpuras and the Vindhyas along the southern and the northern margins where the residuals are now tendered in the Government Reserved and Protected forests. The forests aligned on the Satpura hills are most extensive, while those on the Vindhyas are most compact. The Reserved forests are spread over in blocks of various sizes and cover an area of 253.6 sq. miles (65,682 hectares). The Protected forests stretch in belts and cover an area of 281 sq. miles (70,509 hectares).

Composition and Condition of the Crops

Geology plays some part in determining the distribution of forest types. Teak forest is mainly confined to trap, conglomerate and Vindhya sand-stone, and *sal* to Upper Gondwana sand-stone or quartzite. The trap hill-tops and upper slopes bear teak forest, the lower slopes and the foot of the hills where Lametas are exposed bear mixed forest in which *rohan* is the chief species while Gondwana sand-stone along the nullahs and elsewhere carries *sal* forest.

The forests of the Division may be described under the following main types.—

I. *Sal* forest, II Teak, III Mixed forest without the predominance of teak or *sal* and IV Bamboo.

Sal Forest

A small patch of very poor quality *sal (Shorea robusta)* occurs in Block No. 24 of Khairi range in Narsimhapur District. In this type, *sal* is the predominating species and forms about 75 per cent of the crop. Its chief associates are *saj (Terminalia tomentosa)*, *dhaura (Anogeissus latifoliia)*, *tendu (Diospyros*

melanoxylon), *achar (Buchanania lanzan)*, *aonla (Embica officinalis)*, *seja (Lagerstroemia parviflora)*, *bija (Pterocarpus marsupium)*, *mahua (Madhuca longifolia)*, *kari (Saccopetalum tomentosum)*, *khaia (Strychnos potatorum)*, and *gunja*.

Undergrowth mainly consists of *jirola* or *neet (Indigofera pulchella)*, *siharu (Nyctanthes arbortristis)*, *dulduli (Embelia robusta)*, *dhawai (Woodfordia floribunda)*, *karonda (Carissa spinarum)*, *chhind (Phoenix acahlis)*, *Flemingia bracteatu*, *Desmodium* species and *Grewia* species. *Babai* grass *(Ischaemum angustifolium*) is common on nullah banks. Climbers like *mahul (Bauhinia vahlli)*, *guhalaria (Millettia auriculata)* and *ramdaton (Smilax macrophylla)* are common in the dense forest and *makoi (Zizyphus oenoplia)* in the open areas.

The *sal* forests are the high-land type forests on the flat or undulating areas away from the nullahs. These occur on the well-drained valleys. *Sal* forms about 80 per cent of the crop. The bulk of the crop is IV (a) quality[1] with some patches of II and IV (b) quality. The medium girth classes are poorly represented and usually unsound. *Sal* forms about 50 per cent of the crop which varies considerably in density. The III quality patches are dense but IV (a) and IV (b) areas are usually open and contain a very low percentage of *sal*.

The forests are approximately middle-aged and very few trees above 3′ girth are met with, most of the larger trees having been removed under the old Working Plan (before 1929).

Teak Forest

Teak *(Tectona grandis)* in Narsimhapur District is near its northern limit (23°20′ N approx.) in Sagar and Damoh districts. It is confined to those localities where the soil and underlying rock are favourable and night frosts are neither frequent nor severe. It is entirely absent on the Gondwana sandstone and laterite, and is mainly confind to hilly portions specially on Trap and to some extent on Vindhyan sand-stone. In Narsimhapur District all trap areas bear teak. In addition to above-mentioned rocks, Gondwana conglomerate in Khairi range and metamorphic rocks in blocks around Kishanpur of Richhai range also bear teak forests.

1.

Mixed Teak or *Sal II*	70′—90′
Mixed Teak or *Sal III*	50′—70′
Mixed Teak or *Sal IV(a)*	40′—50′
Mixed Teak or *Sal IV(b)*	Below 40′
Bamboos I	Thick and tall
Bamboos II	Poorer and shorter

The principal teak forests in the District are mostly confined to the south-eastern part of the District and occupy all the forest blocks located above 1,400' from the mean seal level in this region. The teak forests also occupy the parts of Kishanpur and Bachai Reserved forests and other blocks lying at a lower level and fringing the principal teak area. In the Khairi range, small patches of teak forests occur around Premnarayan Fort and Jamgaon, south-west of Guari, north of Salichauka, east of Mukunda and northern foot-hills of Biladawarpahar. In the Richhai range teak of poor quality occupies the bulk of Alanpur, Ghugrisinghota, Richhai and Mehka Khapa Reserved forests and the forests north of Dongargaon.

Teak is the chief species, its commonest associates being *saj*, *dhaura*, *lendia*, *tinsa* (*Ougeinia delbergioides*), *achar*, *mahua*, *ghiria* (*Chloroxylon swietenia*), *khair* (*Acacia catechu*), *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*), *karlu* (*Sterculia urens*) and *herwa* (*Erythrina suberosa*), so common on rocky areas. Under-growth mainly consists of *siharu*, *morarphal* (*Helicteres isora*), *karonda*, *Indigofera* species, *Desinodium* species, *Petalidium barterioide*, *Strobilanthes* species and grass. *Mahul* and *belapalas* (*Butea superba*) are the commonest climbers in denser patches and *makoi* on open areas. The bulk of teak forests is of IV (a) quality; III quality forest is common in parts of Narsimhapur, Gotegaon and Khairi ranges. Small patches of II quality forest are met with on alluvial soil but their total area is comparatively small; the best is at Salechouka in Khairi range. A few trees in the best patches may reach a girth of 5' but the average girth attainable by teak in this Division is 3-1/2'. The number of old trees is comparatively large in unworked areas but the bulk of the heavily worked forests consist of straight and well-grown coppice shoots. Most of the older trees are crooked or otherwise defective in consequence of past maltreatment and on account of poor, shallow, dry and strong soil in IV(a) quality areas. On trap, teak formed about 60 per cent of the crop and in places patches of pure teak are met with.

On the Vindhyan sand-stone and conglomerate the percentage of teak is generally low and the IV (b) type forests usually contain only scattered trees of teak. The density varies considerably. The better quality forests are well-stocked but the poor IV (b) areas are open. Bamboos occur in some of the teak forests of Khairi and Richhai ranges; in Narsimhapur and Gotegaon ranges, the teak forests are of a drier type and bamboos are absent. The bamboo types contain less advanced growth than others. The areas worked heavily in the past have good advanced growth. Teak is invasive under *salai* forest in Narsimhapur and Gotegaon ranges. On the whole regeneration is not good.

Mixed Forest

This is by far the most widely distributed of all the main types. Being encroached by the teak on the trap, it is mostly associated with the Gondwana formations. Its principal associates are given below:—

Large Trees

The commonest are *saj*, *dhaura*, *lendia*, *aonlla*, *achar*, *tendu* and *mahua*. Less common trees are *ghiria*, *anjan (Hardvickia binata)*, *bahera (Terminalia ballerica)*, *bija*, *salai*, *gainar (Cochlospermum gossypium)*, *karlu*, *haldu (Adina cordifolia)*, *jammun (Eugenia jambolana)*, *khamer (Gmelina arborea)*, *jamrasi (Elaeodendron glaucam)*, *kaim (Stephegyne parviflora)*, *palas (Butea frondosa)*, *mokha (Schrebera swietenioides)*, *kasai (Bridelia retusa)*, *kusum (Schrebera triguda)* and *koha (Terminalia arjuna)*.

Small Trees

Bel (Aegle marmelos), *amaltas (Cassia fistula)*, *ghont (Zizyphus xylopyrus)*, *ber (Zizyphus jujuba)*, *khair (Acacia catechu)*, *papra (Gardeina latifolia)*, *thuar (Euphorbia nimbia)* and *Bauhinia* species.

Shrubs

Siharu, *karonda (Carissa spinarum)*, *marorphal* and *dhawai (Woodfordia floribunda)*.

Climbers

Makoi, *mahul*, *belapalas (Butea superba)*, *papri (Ventilago calyculata)*, *ail (Acacia penale)*, *guhalaria* and *ramdaton*.

Sub-Types

There are roughly nine sub-types of mixed forest, eight of them characterised by the predominance of *saj*, *khair*, *salai*, *ghont*, *anjan*, *bhirra*, *siharu* and *karonda*, respectively, and a ninth general sub-type.

Sub-Type 1 (*Sal* predominant)

This type is met with principally on level ground where the soil is more or less clayey. The natural tendency of the *sal* is to form dense forests. The localities where this type usually occurs have mostly been intermittently cultivated in the past and are now subject to heavy grazing so that the crop is frequently open. The quality of the crops is generally good. Regeneration is often sparse on account of heavy grazing.

Sub-Type 2 (*Khair* predominant)

This type is met with on poor or strong soil. The growth is generally dense, but the trees are stunted and spreading, the height growth being rarely more than 20′. *Khair* is generally mixed with *saj*, *dhaura*, *papri* and *bija*, but sometimes a nearly pure *khair* forest occurs.

Sub-Type 3 (*Salai* predominant)

This type is also met with on dry, shallow and strong soil. At places teak is invading this type. These forests are unworkable at present.

Sub-Type 4 (*Ghont* predominant)

This type is found mainly on shallow stony soil in the Vindhyan area. *Ghont* is mixed with other common species but some pure patches of this type are met with. The density is generally low. It is unworkable for timber or fuel but lac can usually be propagated.

Sub-Type 5 (*Anjan* predominant)

Anjan is met with in Khairi range and in Bachai range west of Seoni-Narsimhapur road on stand-stone or conglomerate, but sometimes on trap and metamorphic rocks. The percentage of *anjan* is low, and only on certain upper slopes and hill tops in Khairi range it is really predominant and to be found in pure patches. The bulk of the crop consists of young and middle-aged trees.

Sub-Type 6 (*Ghiria* predominant)

It is met usually on sandy soil mixed with other species but sometimes it is found in pure patches. In Khairi range some of the hill tops bear *ghiria* mixed with *anjan* but generally do not grow more than 35′, in height and 2 1/2′ in girth.

Sub-Type 7 (*Siharu* predominant)

It is usually dense and common in Richhai range. *Siharu* seldom attains a height of more than 20′ and teak and miscellaneous species form a thin over-wood.

Sub-Type 8 (*Karonda* predominant)

It is found on flat areas with stiff, badly aerated soil, and is common on sand-stone, laterite and trap. The forest does not attain a height of more than

15′ and *mahua*, *saj*, and *aonla* usually form a thin over-wood. The climber *makoi* is common. Overwood is low in density and is, therefore, unworkable.

Sub-Type 9 (Miscellaneous species)

Common sub-type is met with on all types of soil. No species is particularly conspicuous and where not heavily grazed, the crop is dense with a fair amount of regeneration.

Bamboo Forest

Dendrocalamus strictus is the only species of bamboo met with in this District. Bamboo does not form pure forests but occurs in types I, II and III above, thereby essentially modifying the character of these types and justifying the establishment of the mixtures as separate types. The clumps are of very inferior size and quality except in part of Saleh Chauka block in Khairi range where good quality bamboos are found. They seldom attain a height of more than 20′ and generally form an under-wood below a thin over-wood of mixed species. Regeneration of tree species is generally scanty in bamboo areas. Fernandez has recorded in his working plan that bamboos flowered in Jabalpur District about the year 1892 and they were seen flowering gregariously in parts of Jabalpur range in 1928.

Grasses[1]

Most villages have certain areas under grass which are called *birs* and situated in hollows or on the banks of streams, where there is sufficient moisture in the soil to ensure a good growth. The best kinds of grass are *kel* (*Andropogon annulatus*) and *musyal*. *Musyal* may be either of two similar grasses, *Iseilema wightii* and *Iseilema lexum*, but is probably the latter, or it may be that both are called by the same name. In *Iseilema laxum* the pedicels have tufts of hair at the base and *musyal* is said to be so called because it is bearded. *Iseilema wightii* has reddish coloured stems and spikelets, which render it a conspicuous object from a considerable distance. All the above are good fodder grasses, and in Narsimhapur they are the most highly valued. *Musyal* is said to be the best. They grow mixed. It is said that the appearance of these grasses, in a field infested with *kans*, is one of the first signs that the grass has run its time and the soil has recovered its vigour. The other common grasses of the region also occur in Narsimhapur. Among these may be mentioned *ganer* or *gunderi* (*Anthistiria scandens*) a coarse luxuriant

1. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, 1906, p. 14, and J. F. Duthie, Fodder Grasses of Northern India, Roorkee, 1888.

grass which is eaten readily by horned cattle. It is the high grass of the Baihar plateau, and may be easily recognised by its inflorscence, the spikelets being arranged in short clusters. The clusters of spikelets turn to a bright reddish colour after flowering. The well known spear grass (*Andropogon contrortus*) is almost useless as a fodder, as cattle object to it when they can get anything else. It is principally used for thatching. Its local name appears to be *parbi*, but this term sometimes also designates *Andropogon annulatus* or *kel*. Another grass called *saina* may be *Ischaemum laxum* which Lowrie stated to be one of the best fodder grass in Ajmer. It is said to be used locally for covering the leaves of betel-vine gardens. A grass called locally *sukar* may be *sikka*, the vernacular name of *Panicum ciliare* in Seoni and Balaghat (Duthie). This is a comparatively small grass with stems 1′-1-1/2′ high, found usually in dry, sandy or rocky ground, and yielding a good fodder. *Bhaber* or *baber* (*Pollinia oriopoda*) is a grass giving an excellent material for cordage for which it is used locally, and now largely employed elsewhere in the manufacture of paper. It is obtained in large quantities from the Salehchauka, Chaugan, and Jamunpani Government forests. Its stem is 1-1/2′ or more, and its base belt-like and covered with woolly pubescence. *Munj (Saccharum ciliare)* belongs to the same genus as *kans* and sugarcane. It is a tall handsome grass with long narrow leaves, rough at the edges with minute forward prickles. Its spikelets are densely clothed with long white silky hairs. This grass is too coarse to be used for fodder except when quite young. It is stated locally to be employed for making cordage; weavers' brushes are also made from it, and stands for vessels. *Kans* (*Saccharum spontaneum*) is a tall grass with long and narrow leaves. The quantity of wool-like pubescence which surrounds the base of the spikelets renders it a conspicuous object. In the Punjab it is considered in some districts as valuable fodder, but in the Central parts of Madhya Pradesh its entire disappearance would probably not be regretted. The aromatic *rusa* grass (*Andropogon schoenanthus*) is not common and its oil is not extracted locally. *Barru* (*Sorghum halepense*) is the grass from which reed pens are made. It is a large-leaved grass, growing chiefly along nullahs, and is considered to be a good fodder grass both for grazing and as hay. A common local phrase used to be '*Barru katkar abad kiya*' or 'he cut down the *barru* and founded the village'.[1] *Urai* (*Andropogon squarrosus*) is the *khas-khas* grass. It affects moist low-lying land. *Tatties* are made from the fragrant roots. In Northern India it affords good fodder, when young, and is much relished by buffaloes. Locally its stalks make the brushes with which grain is swept up from the threshing floors. It cannot be eradicated by ploughing and is therefore often planted to make field boundaries.[2]

1. Quoted, Narsinghpur District Gazetteer. Pp. 10-16.

2. Ibid.

MANAGEMENT OF FORESTS

Reserved Forests

Before the year 1862, the forests were considered a free gift of nature that required no conservation. People had free access to hack and burn at will and shifting cultivation was prevalent. The first semblance of forest management in the District appeared with the introduction of Waste Land Rules in the year 1862 when the cutting of teak (*Tactona grandis*), *sal, saj, shisham* and *bija* was forbidden without the sanction of the Deputy Commissioner. Access to all other species was allowed on payment of an annual commutation fee. The first Conservator of Forests was appointed for the Province in the year 1862. The forests in the Jabalpur-Narsimhapur Forest Division were classed as Unreserved, Forests in the year 1865 and were brought under the first Forest Act. However these forests continued under the management of Deputy Commissioners except that the accounts of revenue and expenditure were maintained by the Forest Department. The commutation system was abolished and the licence system introduced in the year 1878. These forests were notified as Reserved in the year 1879 under section 34 of the Indian Forest Act of 1878. The forests of Narsimhapur remained under the management of the Deputy Commissioner till October, 1886 when they were placed under the jurisdiction of the Divisional Forest Officer, Hoshangabad. In the year 1889, these were separated to form Narsimhapur Forest Division, portion of Sagar and Damoh districts being tagged on to form a suitable charge. The Tendukhera range (Richhai sub-range) was transferred from Narsimhapur Division to Sagar Forest Division, in the year 1902 and the charge remained, as thus constituted, till 1933 when it was bifurcated.

The Introduction of Working Plans

A regulated system of localized felling was introduced by means of a provisional working scheme in the year 1893 and a regular working plan was sanctioned in the year 1897-98 by Fernandez, Conservator of Forests, Northern Circle. The method of treatment prescribed under this Plan was Coppice with Standards on a rotation of 20 years. Four working circles in the four existing ranges, viz., Bachai (covering about the present Narsimhapur and Gotegaon ranges), Khairi, Richhai and Tendukhera were formed. Tendukhera felling series was worked under the prescriptions of this Plan even when it was attached to Sagar Forest Division from the year 1902 to 1913. Six felling series were formed in Bachai, three in Khairi and three in Richhai working circles, respectively. Cleaning and thinning operations were not prescribed under this Plan, but dead and fallen trees were removed. All worked areas were closed to grazing for 10 consecutive years after felling. For working the bamboos a rotation of three years

was prescribed, three felling series being formed in Richhai range and four in Khairi range.

The Second Working Plan

In the year 1917-18 the method of treatment was changed from Coppice with Standard to Improvement fellings and the rotation increased to 30 years by the addition of 10 coupes to each felling series from the adjoining, hitherto unworked areas. A few experimental series were also started in the unworked areas. In the year 1924 a scheme of thinnings in valuable areas, cultural operations after the main fellings and climber cutting in advance of main felling, was introduced.

Under this Plan minor produce was exploited by leases given out usually by blocks or sub-ranges. These leases were annual but in the case of lac long-term leases were customary. During the years preceding 1929, lac was worked departmentally.

As a result of the two working plans, the Reserved forests were considerably improved in the year 1929. The bulk of the dead and old deteriorating trees had been removed and coppice shoots with a few young trees of more than 3′ girth had taken place. Heavier the work in areas, the better was the result but in the Mixed forests where the demand was partial and subsequent cultural operations were not carried out, the past fellings had generally been confined to the best poles upto a girth of 24″. Thus badly shaped trees or unsaleable species were standing in the crop of such areas. The forests near densely populated villages have suffered seriously from the effects of heavy grazing. The bamboo feeling series were arranged by proper assessment and some of the coupes contained very few bamboos. This led to the irregularities in supply, enforcement of the rules and the consequent damage to the bamboo clumps at places.

The Third Working Plan for Disintegration

A revised working plan for Jabalpur-Narsimhapur Division for 10 years was prepared by Gurdial Singh, E. A. C. (Forests). This was introduced in the year 1928 and was enforced in different parts of the Division except the Tendukhera Circle even after its disintegration in the year 1932. The Plan prescribed six working circles, viz., Teak High Forest, Coppice with Standards, Low Forest, Bamboo (over-lapping), Khair (over-lapping) and Miscellaneous Working Circles. The entire forest was stock-mapped in detail. Yield was regulated by area. A 60 year period was prescribed for rotation of Teak and Standards, while it was 30 years for Coppice. The periods of rotation in the Low Forests, Bamboos (over-lapping) and Khair (over-lapping) Working Circles were 40 years, 4 years and 10 years, respectively. Suitable felling series were formed for all the forests,

except those covered under the Micellaneous Working Circle. Heavy crown-thinnings or removal of depressed growth were prescribed at suitable intervals of 20 or 15 years.

As a measure of economy the Narsimhapur Sub-Division was abolished and separated from Jabalpur Division, the various parts being amalgamated into other adjoining forest divisions. The Bachai range consisting of the present Narsimhapur and Gotegaon ranges, was transferred to Seoni Division. Khairi range was transferred to Hoshangabad Forest Division in which Division it was made a sub-range from the year 1933 to 1937, after which it was restored to a range charge. Richhai range including Tendukhera sub-range was disintegrated and its parts were merged into Damoh and Sagar Divisions. The blocks transferred to Damoh Forest Division are those of Nayagaon, Richhai, Kumrora, Ramkhiria, Amapani, Mahguan Rampur, Mulkuhi, Mohka-Khapa, Bikrampur and Bandohra. The block Nos. 26-A, 27-A and 31-A near Khak-rendi, Alanpur and Ghugri-Singota, respectively, continued to be in the Sagar Forest Dtvision.

Bachai Range (in Seoni Forest Division)

Even after the transfer of this range in the Seoni Forest Division, Gurdial Singh's Working Plan remained effective in this range till 1947, when it was revised by A. J. Robinson. Only the main items were brought up-to-date in, this Plan for a period of 10 years. S. Pasupati inspected the forests, compiled the compartment histories (forms) and prepared another plan in the year 1948-49. Since it was based on old stock-maps prepared by Gurdial Singh. there were only a few changes in the working circles, felling series and the allotment of coupes. The present Narsimhapur and Gotegaon ranges were covered under Improvement Working Circles on a felling cycle of 30 years. Jaitpur, Bachai and a few other felling series were worked under the Coppice with Reserve System on a rotation of 40 years.

Khairi Range (in Hoshangabad Forest Division)

Gurdial Singh's Working Plan remained effective till 1949 in this range D. H. Kulkarni prepared a revised plan in the year 1949-50 for a period of 15 years and formed five working circles.

The rotation in General Teak Working Circle was raised from 60 to 8 years divided into four periods of 20 years each. Areas then worked during the past 20 years were placed under the large Periodic Block IV. Periodi Block I prescribed different treatments for frost-liable or under-stocked, mixed forests, well-stocked, frost-free teak and pure teak forests. For Periodic Block II only cultural operations and removal of uneconomic tree growth on a cycle

of 20 years were prescribed. Selection-cum-Improvement fellings were laid out for the Periodic Block III.

Most of the mixed forests were included in the Coppice with Reserves Circle. Three felling series were formed. The period of rotation was increased to 50 years. Promising poles were to be retained. Thinning was prescribed on the tenth year.

The felling cycle in the Bamboo (over-lapping), Khair (over-lapping) and Papra Working Circles were four years, 20 years and 30 years, respectively. However, *khair* was not to be worked during the first 10 years of the working plan while the Papra was not at all worked.

On the 1st August, 1958 the range was amalgamated in the Narsimhapur Sub-Division of Jabalpur Division. From the 1st December, 1962 it now forms part of the newly created Narsimhapur Forest Division.

Richhai Range except Tendukhera Circle (present Burman Range in Damoh Division)

The area was worked under Gurdial Singh's Working Plan till 1936 when this was included in Takle's Working Plan (1936-1950) for Damoh Forest Division. Under Takle's Plan the forests were worked into the following working circles.

1. Selection -cum-Improvement
2. Coppice-with-Reserves
3. Lac
4. Kulu
5. Khair and
6. Bamboo (over-lapping)

A felling cycle of 20 years and 40 years, respectively, was prescribed for the first two working circles. Crown-thinning was prescribed. Fifty per cent of the stock in thinned areas and healthy shoots were to be retained. The results were generally good.

Lac, kulu and bamboos were worked on a cycle of four years.

Mahalaha's Working Plan (1951-52 to 1964-65) for Damoh Forest Division emphasised on soil conservation and increasing the density of the growing stock. He prescribed six working circles almost like the previous one. Richhai felling series with an area of 5,849 acres (9.13 sq. miles) was laid out in the Selection Working Circle. Removal of mature trees was restricted to 50 per cent in a felling cycle of 30 years. However, the artificial plantations-

were successful only in a few coupes. Conservation was also envisaged in the Coppice-with-Reserves by keeping a rotation of 45 years and by controlling the yield by area. The felling cycle of kulu was increased to 20 years while kulu was tapped on a cycle of three years with alternating three years of rest.

Tendukhera Circle in Sagar Division

This circle had previously been in the Sagar Division from the year 1902. The five compartment numbers (old and revised in 1965) 318 (480),319 (481), 335 (482), 336 (483) and 337 (484) were worked under Coppice-with-Standards System on a rotation of 20 years, under Fernandez's Plan till 1934. During the period of Datta's Plan (1934-35 to 1954-55) these were worked under Coppice with Reserves. The revised plan of Sagar Division by V. K. Seth for the period 1953-54 to 1969-70 created three working circles in the area. The Teak High forests in Forest Circle I to IX were worked on a rotation of 80 years divided into four periodical blocks of 20 years each. The Coppice with Reserves in Gundrai Forest Circle and Khair in all the five compartments were worked on a rotation of 40 years and 30 years, respectively.

Mahalaha's Working Plan was succeeded by Agarwal's Plan in 1965, which also included the Ex-Proprietary forests.

Ex-Proprietary Forests

The forests under the control of the *malguzars* were privately managed without any plans on the scientific basis. These were vested in the State Government (Mahakoshal Region) under the Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1951. These are scattered in blocks of one to five square miles on the margins of Reserved forests. The area of such forests, vested in the Government in Narsimhapur District, is 282 sq. miles (733.2 sq. km.) falling in the areas of 271 villages mostly in Khairi, Richhai and parts of Narsimhapur range (Dilehari *ex-Jagir*).

From the year 1951 to 1954 these forests were placed under the charge of the Revenue Department which managed them through the Patels, the elected village leaders vested with some powers and duties by the Government. The Patels were not sensitive towards the conservation of the forests and having no owners' interests, granted or recommended unrestricted concessions to their electors, causing heavy fellings.

In the year 1954 these forests were transferred to the Forest Department on paper without maps or demarcation on the ground. These were to be organised by the two departments of Revenue and Forest. Under such circumstances the Forest Department could not help the enforcement of forest conservancy measures and any control was of the nature of compromise with

the local inhabitants. The Revenue Department appointed Nistar Officers to report on the future working of the vested forests. The forests of Narsimhapur Forest Sub-Division were divided among Hoshangadad, Seoni and Sagar districts. The treatment suggested was not uniform for the entire District and the *Nistar* zones prescribed in the reports were faulty and impracticable. The villages were classified into deficient, self-sufficient and sufficient groups without proper assessment and thus the permissible availability of Nistar material in the zones and population of the villages attatched to them were not properly considered. The Nistar Officers' reports also included some areas in form 'D' which were the forest areas allotted for cultivation. This is a double management in which the Revenue Department permits *nistar* and the Forest Department supplies. The tendency is that the former stresses on the villagers' satisfaction and the latter tries the forest conservation. The problem is acute from both the point of view.

As a result of ill-treatment, the ex-Proprietary forests of the District exist mostly in patches in the less accessible areas. The majority of these are reduced to coppice teak cut at different heights. Forests of seedling origin are rare in rocky and hilly areas. Uncontrolled grazing, unrestricted cutting and annual fires have deprived the forests of natural regeneration. The present stock is malformed. Improvement fellings and cutting back of all malformed growth is the only remedy to improve these forests. But such an operation will be justified when complete after-protection from grazing and fires could be assured to these areas for at least five years after working. As the proposals failed to bring about conservation of ex-Proprietary forests, the Forest Department was made to prepare a scheme for the working of these forests on scientific lines. The first working scheme was prepared by R. C. Mehrotra in the year 1960 for a period of 20 years. He aimed at improving the condition of the growing stock, preserving the flora on the slopes and understocked areas and meeting the *nistar* and grazing demands of the local people which may provide a sustained annual revenue. Barring the intensive working, he has prescribed the Improvement Fellings with thinnings and cultural operations. He has divided the Protected forests into the following four working circles.

1. Teak Improvement Felling Working Circle

The working circle includes almost all the teak bearing areas in the ex-Proprietary forests and provides the removal of malformed trees with sufficient after-care of the rest.

2 Mixed Improvement Felling Working Circle

The working circle covers the mixed forests in the ex-Proprietary forests. The prescriptions are the same as above.

3. Teak Plantation Over-lapping Working Circle

This covers the areas suitable for raising the teak plantation or the areas of gap in the flora which requires a fill-up.

4. Bamboo Over-lapping Working Circle

This covers the bamboo bearing areas in which the prescriptions of working are the same as in the Reserved forests.

Centenary of Forest Conservancy

In the year 1961 to mark the centenary celebration, plantation over an area of 100 acres was raised at Amanala in Narsimhapur range. An expenditure of Rs. 12,923 was incurred.

Trees were planted in an area of 60 acres in which process *donas* were used; while an area of 40 acres was planted with root-shoots. The main species planted was teak.

Game Laws and Measures for the Preservation of Wild Life

The Government of India passed the Preservation of Animals and Game Act (Act XX of 1887) for this purpose. This was later replaced by the more comprehensive Wild Birds and Animals Protection Act of 1912. The Provincial Government of the Central Provinces and Berar sought to protect more varied and interesting fauna by the promulgation of special shooting rules (Appendix VII of the Central Provinces and Berar Forest Manual) and later by the Central Provinces Game Act (Act of 1935). Before the abolition of proprietary rights the private forests were free for shooting to the shikaries and good deal of game was destroyed. It was very late when with the abolition of these rights the vested forests were covered by the shooting rules and a check was put on illegal shooting. But co-operation from the public is still lacking. Most of the illegal shootings detected are acts of butchery by whatever means without any moral or intellectual considerations. There is almost unbelievable ignorance of the provisions of the Central Provinces and Berar Game Act and of the rules framed thereunder. Under the present arrangement the whole District is divided into 19 shooting blocks, about a third of which are opened every year in rotation for shooting by the permit-holders. Permits are issued to the shikaries by the Divisional Forest Officer for a limited period on the payment of required fees.

Thus, the provisions of these rules can adequately safeguard the wild fauna if a moral understanding is created among the masses and the authorities are little more vigilant.

FAUNA

Mammals

The wild beasts like tigers, leopards, bears, monkeys, deer, *nilgai*, *sambhar* wild-dogs (*sonkutta*), jackals, hedgehogs and wolves are found in the District. Domestic animals like cows, buffaloes, sheep, goats, dogs, cats, etc., are found all over the District in the human settlements.

In the 18th century this District was haunted by a large number of tigers and leopards but now the tigers have become almost scarce. They usually enter the District from the south, i. e., Chhindwara and Seoni districts. Leopards and bears are found in most of the forests, frequenting the low hills. The old District Gazetteer mentions the existence of panthers but it is difficult now to confirm their existence, the species being very identical to the leopards. The wild buffalo is not found and the bison is not the settler in the District. A few occasionally visit the hills in the south-west between Mohpani and the Dudhi river. *Sambhar* and *nilgai* are seen in most of the jungles along the northern and the southern boundaries of the District. *Nilgais* are plentiful in the thinner forests of adjoining Gorakhpur. *Chital* or spotted-deer, *ghutri* or barking-deer and *chausingha* or four-horned deer are seen rarely, only in a few localities. *Chinkaras* or ravine-deer frequent the District from the south. Black-bucks are numerous in the open country of the Gadarwara Tahsil but are scarce in Narsimhapur Tahsil. The horns hardly exceed 22″ (55.88 Centimetres) in length. Wild bears, *nilgai* and *sambhar*, are found in the forests bordering the cultivated land and cause damage to the crops. Hares are plentiful in the grassy open in the forests.

Among the animals of lower vertebrate varieties *goh*, *girdhona*, *guheru*, *gilhari*, *bramhni*, *chhipkali*, *girgit* and *dulna* are found in the District. All these are more or less poisonous. The *dulna* changes the skin colour.

Short-snouted crocodiles are found in the Narmada and also sometimes in its major tributaries in the District.

Birds

The birds found in the District are crow, *cheel* (kite), *baaj* (*naik*), owl, vulture, fowl, *van-murgi*, pigeon, *teetar*, *titehri*, stork, duck, *dhan-chiria*, *papeeha*, *fadki*, sparrow, *koyal*, *barbai*, crane, *hariyal*, *nilkanth*, spine, *moar*, *galgal* and *gulsumba*. Owing to the lack of lakes and large tanks, ducks and snipes are not common except on the reaches of the rivers. The gray-goose is always seen in the cold weather at one or two places and the spurred-goose (*Plectropterus sarkidiomis*) on the tanks. Whistling teal and goose-teal are also to be seen on most tanks. Spur-fowls are found all over in the forests but jungle-fowls are scarce. The painted-partridge is observed in small numbers

but the gray-partridge is plentiful. The quails are common but the gray species is scarce. Pea-fowls are found all over the District. The pea-fowl is common in the forests nearing a water point and in the ravines. Sand-grouse is found in every forested tract but not in plenty. They are frequently seen in a gorge of the Macharewa river.

Butterflies

The species of the butterflies stated to be found in the Satpura plateau including part of Narsimhapur District are the long-branded bush-brown (*Mycalesis visala*), the common tree-brown (*Lothe rohria*), the sergeant (*Athima perious*), the chocolate pansy (*Junonia iphita*), the common sunbeam (*Curetis thelis*), the large oak-blue (*Arhopala amantes*), the common spotted flat (*Celeanorrhinus leucocera*), and the map butterfly (*Cyrestis thyodamas*).

The reptiles, amphibions and fishes found in the District are as follows:—

Reptiles

Kobra, *krait*, *ajgar*, *dhaman*, *nagin*, beer, *ghorhapachhar*, flying snake, thread-like snake, *suapankhi*, garenta. *padmini*, *nagin parraun*.

Amphibians

Toad, *kekra* (crab) and *panial sanp* or snake of black colour.

Fishes

The Narmada and its tributaries are the only major fish habitat in the District. The tanks and reservoirs are small and shallow. However, Nagwara, Changani and such other tanks are important for pisciculture. The species commonly found in the District are *Lebeo rohita* species, *Wallago attu*, *Barbus tor* species, *Catla catla*, *Cirrhina mrigala* and *Ophiocephalus* species. Tortoises and water snakes are also found in the District. Short-nozzled crocodiles and toads are found in the Narmada. Of these *Labeo* and *Ophiocephalus* species are abundant both in the rivers and tanks. *Catla* prefers the tanks while the *Ophiocephalus* species preponderate in the rivers. *Cirrhina*, *Labeo* and *Barbus* species flourish in the deep waters of the inland water bodies. The shallow tanks support only the minor carps and sometimes *Ophiocephalus* spp.

Generally the water bodies support only the smaller varieties of fishes, mostly ranging from 2″ to 6″ in length and five grams to 100 grams in weight. The largest size ever found in the tanks was about 4′-6″ (1.37 metres), weighing 21 kilograms in the Narmada.

The local names of the fishes found in the District are *soanr*, *baam*,

jegla, karchi, mathya, rohu, mahasheer, ainda, katiya, parhan, bhakur, bhangna, goharia, seenghan, mangela and *jhinga*.

Mortality from Reptiles and Wild Animals

The number of deaths caused by snake-bites in this small District was 144 during the seven years from 1958 to 1964. The highest number recorded was 24 at Gotitoria followed by Narsimhapur 21 and Themi 17. The police stations at Mungwani, Gadarwara, Kareli and Gotegaon recorded 12 to 15 casualties due to snake-bites during the same period. The northern police stations at Tendukhera, Suatala and Sainkheda recorded six to eleven deaths on this account. The trend of geographical distribution shows a high incidence of snake bite casualties in the Satpura, lesser in the valley region and a decline in the trans-Narmada territory of Tendukhera. The high incidence in Narsimhapur may be due to the deaths in the Main Hospital of patients from outside. The year-wise number of deaths during the seven years was 18 in 1958, 17 in 1959, 24 in 1960, 27 in 1961, 19 in 1962, 21 in 1963 and 18 in 1964.

The deaths caused by wild animals are not many. Of the four reported casualties, three were in the south-eastern police station of Mungawani and one in Gotitoria during the period 1958-64.

CLIMATE

The climate of this District is characterised by generally pleasant weather, except in the hot season. The year may be divided into four seasons. The cold season from about the middle of November to February is followed by the hot season which continues up to the middle of June. The period from middle of June to the end of September is the south-west monsoon season. October and the first half of November constitute the post-monsoon or retreating monsoon season.

Rainfall

Records of rainfall in the District are available for five stations for periods ranging from 57 to 95 years. Tables in Appendix-A give the details of rainfall at these stations and for the District as a whole. The annual rainfall in the District is 1,300.8 mm. (51.21″). The rainfall in the District is higher around Mohpani in the south-west and decreases towards the north-west. About 90 per cent of the annual rainfall in the District is received during the monsoon months, June to September, July being the rainiest month. The variation in the annual rainfall from year to year is not large. In the 50 years period 1901-1950 the highest annual rainfall amounting to 141 per cent of the normal occurred in 1944. The lowest annual rainfall which was 69 percent of the normal occurred in 1920. In the same 50 years period, the annual rainfall in the District as a whole was less than 80 per cent of the normal in seven years, none

of them being consecutive. However, considering the annual rainfall at the individual stations two consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred twice at Mohpani and once each at Gotegaon and Tendukhera. Even three and four consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred once at Narsimhapur and Mohpani, respectively. The annual rainfall in the District was between 1,100 and 1,600 mm. (43.32″ and 62.99″) in 36 years out of 50.

On an average there are 60 rainy days. (i.e., days with rainfall of 2.5 mm. 10 cents or more) in a year in the District. This number is more or less uniform in the whole District.

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the District was 422.1 mm. (16.62″) at Narsimhapur on the 7th September, 1891.

Temperature

There is no meteorological observatory in the District. The description which follows is mainly based on the records of the observatories in the neighbouring Districts which have almost a similar climate. From about the end of February temperature begins to increase rapidly till May, which is the hottest month. The mean daily maximum temperature in May is about 41°C. (105.8°F.) and the mean daily minimum, about 25° or 26°C. (77.0° or 78.8°F.). The heat in summer is intense and hot dust-laden winds in the latter part of the summer season add to the discomfort. Afternoon thunder showers which occur on some days bring welcome relief though only temporarily. On some days the maximum temperature may go up to about 46° or 47°C. (114.8° or 116.6° F.). With the advance of the monsoon into the District by about the second week of June there is an appreciable drop in the day temperature and the weather becomes progressively cooler. Towards the end of the monsoon season day temperature increases slightly and reaches a secondary maximum in October. But the nights become progressively cooler. December and January are the coldest months of the year with the mean daily maximum temperature at about 25°C. (77.0° F.) and the mean daily minimum at about 9°C. (48.2° F.), In winter, cold waves affect the District in the wake of the western disturbances passing across North India and the minimum temperature may go down to about the freezing point.

Humidity

During the south-west monsoon season the relative humidity is high, generally exceeding 70 per cent. The humidity is less during the rest of the year. The driest part of the year is the summer season when the relative humidities in the afternoons may be lower than 20 per cent.

Cloudiness

During the south-west monsoon season the skies are generally heavily clouded or overcast. In the rest of the year skies are mostly clear or lightly clouded.

Winds

Except during the south-west monsoon season winds are generally light. During the south-west monsoon season the winds are mainly from the south-west or west. In the post-monsoon and winter season southerly or south-easterly winds prevail in the mornings while in the afternoons winds are from directions between east and north. In the summer season winds blow from directions between south and north-west.

Special Water Phenomena

Depressions originating in the Bay of Bengal during the mosoon season move in some westerly direction passing through the District or its neighbourhood causing widespread heavy rains and high winds. Dust-storms occur occasionally during the summer season. Thunder-storms occur mostly during the period January to September, the highest incidence being in June. Fog occurs very occasionally during the cold season.

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

Pre-history

The tract covered by Narsimhapur District is of great antiquity. As far back as in 1872, a chipped and oval-shaped stone hand-axe, fashioned out of Vindhyan sand-stone, was discovered at Bhutra, also spelt as Bhatra, about eight miles north of Gadarwara in the District. This hand-axe was found in the gravels of the Narmada in association with the fossils of the extinct species of rhinoceros, hippopotamus, straight-tusked elephant, horse, buffalo and crocodile. The hand-axe is the earliest pre-historic relic of man discovered in India and is regarded as belonging to the pre-Chellean Age. It has been stated that the formation of the gravels in which this tool of early Palaeolithic industry was discovered may have commenced some 4,00,000 years ago.

Thus, it furnishes one of the few, but nonetheless decisive pieces of evidence of human existence in late geological times, coeval with the presence of a vertebrate fauna long extinct.[1] It is a sure proof that in the days when the *Hexa protodon*[2] and *Tetra protodon,*[3] with numerous other pachyderms, proboscidians and ruminants roamed over the Central India, man fought with them for mastery in the primeval world. The distance in time of these animals from their present day descendants gives us some measure of antiquity of the human settlements in this region.

The Upper Narmada valley has given a glimpse of a variety of industries–Early and Late Soan, the Abbevillian and Acheulian hand-axe cleaver. At one locality near Narsimhapur, the Late Soan seems to replace the Acheulian culture.[4] The results of some recent archaeological explorations have confirmed that the earliest inhabitants of Narsimhapur were the palaeolithic men. A series of explorations and investigations conducted in the Narmada basin from

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1. J. Coggin Brown, Catalogue *Raisonne* of the Pre-Historic Antiquities in the Indian Museum, Calcutta, pp. 2 and 57; The Vedic Age, pp. 83 and 125-28.

2. & 3. Two genera of Hippopotamus.

4. The Vedic Age, p. 128.

Barmanghat to Jhansighat in Narsimhapur District have yielded a large number of palaeolithic tools and mammalian fossils of pleistocene period. The wide-spread traces of these artefacts and fossils have been noticed at Ratikarar, Devakachar and Barmanghat and in the basins of the Sher, the Shakkar and the Umar, all tributaries of the Narmada[1]. Archaeological explorations carried out in 1960-61 confirmed the three cycle hypothesis of De Terra and Patterson, revealing significant discrepancies at Narsimhapur where the basel cemented conglomerate is not seen, the lowest stratum being dark-red clay with fossils and tools showing an evolutionary trend[2].

At Bijori, on the bank of the Macharewa river, a rockshelter with some rudimentary paintings in red ochre, representing a bison, an elephant and a cock was recently spotted. Over them, the primitive artist had drawn in white pigments scenes of hunting, horse-riding,battle, dance, music, elopement, and a figure of a female riding a lion. Backed blades of Chert and Jasper were discovered in the vicinity[3].

As far as the local tradition goes the old name of Bilthari, a village in Gadarwara Tahsil, was Balisthali, the abode of Raja Bali. Here Raja Bali is said to have performed a sacrifice. Some silicified fossils and zeolitic concretions are pointed out as the ashes of the sacrifice. Further surveys in Narsimhapur region have unearthed distinct traces of prehistoric culture containing stone age implements like cores and flakes[4].

The tradition also connects the District with the Pandavas and other mythological heroes. The Pandava Brothers are believed to have spent a considerable part of their period of exile in this wilderness. Five *kundas* or small tanks are shown to the pilgrims, in a nearby island in the Narmada, as having been created and used by the five brothers during their sojourn at Barman, a village in the District. Bhim's 'foot print' is also shown. In the village Bachai, in Narsimhapur Tahsil, there is a large stone, cut into the semblance of a human face and called the head of Kichak, who made an amorous approach to Draupadi and was slain by Bhima, the second Pandava Brother.[5]

There is a dearth of even traditional history after this stage. Whatever archaeological evidences were there in Bilheri, Kerpani and Pandava villages

1. Indian Archaeology—A Review, 1958-59, p. 27; 1959-60, p. 22; 1960-61, pp. 15 and 16; 1961-62, p. 22.
2. Ibid, 1960-61, p. 15.
3. Ibid, p. 60.
4. Ibid, 1962-63, p. 11.
5. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, pp. 205, 207 and 209.

were removed to England, Germany and Holland by foreign explorers before 1933-34. Some of these were sent to the Nagpur Museum and the public garden at Narsimhapur.

The Satavahanas

Then followed a period of darkness until the curtain is lifted by the Satavahana rulers. The number and variety of numismatic and epigraphic records indicate that this region became an early possession of the Satavahanas in the beginning of the Second Century A. D. Their coins have been discovered at Tripuri[1], Khidia[2] (Hoshangabad District) and Vidisha[3]. Gautamiputra Satakarni (C. 106-30 A. D.) is stated in the Nasik *Prasasti* to have conquered, among other territories, Akara (Eastern Malwa) and Avanti (Western Malwa).[4] He is also styled as the lord of Vijha (Eastern Vindhyas) and Achhavata[5] (Rikshavata or Satpura mountains), etc.

The Guptas

After the dismemberment of the Satavahana Kingdom the history of Narsimhapur is mostly enveloped in darkness, which hides from our view the course of events. As we enter the Gupta period, a number of corroborative records lead us to conclude that this region came under their sway in the 4th Century A. D. Samudra Gupta (C.335-380 A. D.) the Indian Napoleon, as Vincent Smith calls him, is known to have carried his arms to the Southern and the Central India. In the Allahabad Pillar Inscription the proud conqueror is stated to have reduced to complete subjection (literally made servants) all the Atavikarajas, i. e., kings of the forest countries[6].

In two inscriptions dated in the years 199 (A. D. 518)[7] 209 (A. D. 528)[8] of the Gupta Era, King Hastin is said to have ruled over Dabhala together with the eighteen forest kingdoms between 475 and 517 A.D.[9]. The Dabhala or Dahala was conterminous with the Chedi Country, with its capital at Tripuri. The forest kingdoms were, therefore, contiguous to Dabhala. Another

1. For discussions on this subject see Journal of The Numismatic Society of India, Vol. XII, pt. II, pp. 94-97, and 126-33; Vol. XIII, pt. I, pp. 46-52; Vol. XVI, pt. I, pp. 70, 95-96, Vol. XXI, pt. II, pp. 110-11.
2. Ibid, Vol. XIV, pt. I, pp. 55 ff.
3. Ibid, Vol. XIV, pt. I and II, pp. 1-3; Report of the Archaelogical Survey of India, 1813-14, p. 208.
4. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. VIII, pp. 60 ff.
5. Indian Antiquary, Vol. XLVII, 1918, pp. 150-51.
6. Fleet, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 13; The Vakataka Gupta Age, p. 144.
7. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. VIII, pp. 284 ff; Hiralal Inscriptions in C. P. & Berar, p. 87.
8. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, pp. 113-14.
9. R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar, The Vakatka Gupta Age, p. 188.

Parivrajaka ruler, Samskshova (A. D. 518-528) also ruled over this region.[1] It is not unlikely that Narsimhapur was included in one of these forest kingdoms. Parivrajaka kings were so called because they descended from the kingly ascetic Susarman. These Parivrajaka rulers were feudatories of the Gupta Emperor, Budha Gupta (A. D. 476-495).[2]

The Kalachuris

With the downfall of the Gupta empire towards the second half of the 6th Century A. D., we again enter an obscure period in the history of Narsimhapur District. Later, in the 9th Century, the District became a part of the Kalachuri Kingdom.[3] The Kalachuri rulers, also known as the Haihayas were an ancient race. The Kalachuris called themselves, besides the Haihayas, as Chaidyas or lords of the Chedi Country.[4] This ruling house belonged to a well-known Kshatriya family, believed to have been descended from the Moon through Atri and Yadu. In later times, the Kalachuris claimed descent from Kartavirya Arjuna of a thousand arms who, according to all Kalachuri inscriptions, founded this royal line and vanquished even Dasanan Ravana of the Epic fame.[5]

The early Kalachuris had their capital at Mahishmati in the Anupa country, on the bank of the Narmada.[6] They used the era of A. D. 248-49, called the Kalachuri Era, adopted perhaps after their conquest of Nasik and Broach regions. Three Kings of this earlier line are known, viz., Krishnaraja, his son Sankaragana and the latter's son Buddharaja, who ruled between 550-611 A. D. Their rule extended over a vast kingdom comprising Gujarat, Northern Maharashtra and later even parts of Malwa.[7]

A branch of this dynasty succeeded in carving out a vast principality in the Chedi Country, also known as Dahala-*Mandala*, with their capital at Tripuri. It extended from the Gomti to the Narmada. Vamaraja undertook this enterprise in the end of the seventh Century A. D. Kokalla I (C. 850-890 A.D.) was, however, the first king of the Tripuri line to raise its fortune and to

1. Fleet, Op. Cit., Vol. III, pp. 95-96.
2. S. Chattopadhyaya, Early History of North India, pp. 188-190.
3. Hiralal, Inscriptions in C. P. & Berar, p. V.
4. B. C. Law, Historical Geography of Ancient India, pp. 312-13.
5. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. II, p. 14, the origin of the Kalachuris is controversial. Fleet connects them with the Arjunayanas of Samudra Gupta's Allahabad Pillar Inscription while Rai Bahadur Hiralal identifies them with the Western Traikutakas; others derive it from the Turkish word 'Kulchur' meaning an office of high rank, which indicates a foreign origin of the dynasty. For details see Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 10; G, Yazdani, The Early History of the Deccan, pt. I, VI, p. 456.
6. F. E. Pargiter, Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, pp. 41, 102 & 144.
7. R. C. Majumdar, Ancient India, p. 291.

give it distinction. He was one of the greatest generals of his age. The Kalachuri inscriptions credit him with victory over many powerful kings. He is represented as having "conquered the whole earth."[1]

The Kalachuri inscriptions have preserved the names of fifteen more illustrious kings of this dynasty, who continued to rule from Tripuri till about the middle of the thirteenth Century. Amongst them the names of Yuvarajadeva I (C. 915-945), Lakshamanraja II (C. 945-970), who flourished in the middle of the 10th Century and was a great conqueror, Kokalla II (C.990-1015 A. D.), Gangeyadeva (C. 1015-41 A. D.), Lakshmi Karna (C. 1041-1073) and Yasah Karna (C. 1073-1123) are worth mentioning. It is not difficult to assume that inspite of the varying fortunes of the Kalachuri Kingdom, Tripuri and the adjoining region continued to be in its fold.

According to the local belief, after the decline of Kalachuri power, Narsimhapur flourished as a principality of Jashraj and Bachhraj, the father and uncle of Alha and Udal, the legendary Banapar heroes. They had their capital at Bohani village, about 20 miles west of Narsimhapur. Jashraj was the General of the Chandella king Parmal, and lost his life in defence of his master, while the latter invaded the Gaudas and was himself defeated by them. According to Cunningham these Gaudas were the Gonds of Gondwana or Phullitae Gondali of Ptolemy. In *Pirthiraj Raso* of Chand, Alha is credited to have conquered the whole of Gauda, Deogarh and Chanda and on whose breath (life) depended the existence of eight (chief) forts and of Kalanjar. Of these, the fort of Garha was one.[2] A ruined palace which is ascribed to Jashraj by the local authority might have been alluded to by Chand as the fort of Garha. It is not unlikely that this family had some relation with the District.

The Raj-Gonds

The advent of the Raj-Gond rulers marks a new epoch in the history of Narsimhapur. The origin of the Gond rulers of Garha-Katanga[3] is commonly ascribed to one Yadavaraya, also called Jadurai or Yadorai, who established himself at Garha-Katanga towards the close of the 14th Century and initiated a long line of kings, who were destined to play an important role in the history of Gondwana. Tradition differs regarding the antecedents of this legendary figure.[4] One account represents him as having supplanted the Kalachuris with the help of Surbhi Pathak, a dismissed officer of the Kalachuris.[5]

1. Mirashi, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I, pp. lxviii to lxx.
2. A. Cunningham, Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. IX, pp. 150-51, Vol. VII p 21.
3. They were called rulers of Garha-Mandla after the capital was shifted to Mandla in the middle of the 17th Century.
4. For details see Journal of The Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. VI, pt. II, pp. 621-48; E. Chatterton, The Story of Gondwana, pp. 15-17; The University Journal of History, Jabalpur University, No. 2, p. 19.
5. See *Garhesh Nripa Varnanam* Nagpur University Journal, No. 6, pp. 181-201.

Of Yadavaraya's successors, nothing is known except their names which are recorded in the Ramnagar Inscription[1] of Hirde Shah, fifty-third in descent from the founder, dated in the year 1667. A large number of names mentioned there in seem to be fictitious[2]. Madan Shah, thirty-third in the line is stated to have built Madan Mahal in Jabalpur. Gorakhdas and Arjun Singh appear, according to *Akbarnama*, to be father and grand-father, respectively, of Sangram Shah, forty-eighth ruler of the Garha line. Sangram Shah (1480-1541 A. D.) issuing from the Mandla highlands enlarged his patrimony which came to include over fifty-two *garhas* or districts in his dominion, comprising Narsimhapur, Sagar, Damoh, Jabalpur, Mandla, Bhopal and Seoni. A *Sati* record found at Tharraka, 15 miles from Damoh, shows that his authority extended at least fifty miles north of his capital at Garha.[3]

Sangram Shah, called Aman Das in *Akbarnama* is the first historical figure of this family. He came to power in about A. D. 1480. It is to him that Gondwana owes its real greatness and fame, for before him the sway of the Gond rulers was confined to region round Mandla and Jabalpur. Aman Das got the title of Sangram Shah from Sultan Bahadur Shah of Gujarat in recognition of his valuable assistance in the capture of Raisen[4].

The construction of the fort of Chauragarh, 20 miles south-west of Narsimhapur town, is attributed to Sangram Shah. Chauragarh played a considerable part in the history of the District during the Gond and later during the Maratha periods. The construction of this stronghold, probably, followed the acquisition of the Narmada valley for the protection of which a strong and fortified place was necessitated. "Situated on the outer crest of the Satpura table-land, and embracing within its circle of defences two hills, Chauragarh was less a fort than a large fortified camp. The vast scale of the whole work, its numerous tanks and wells excavated at so unusual an elevation, and the massive debris of its buildings, attest the lavish outlay incurred in its completion, and the importance which was attached to it as a royal stronghold."[5] Of the fifty-two *garhas* of Sangram Shah, the fort of Chauragarh itself comprised the five forts of Fatahpur, Namuagarh, Bhawargarh, Panagarh and Deori.[6] Chauragarh was the symbol of increased power of the Garha rulers and was a confession of their diminishing authority when they retired from there.

1. Journal of The American Oriental Research Society, Vol. VII, pp. 1-24; Asiatic Researches, Vol. XV, p. 436, ff; and Cunningham, Archaeological Survey Report, Vol. VII, p. 107, Vol. XVII, p. 46 ff. Ramnagar is 10 miles N. E. of Mandla.
2. Hiralal, *Mandla Mayukha*, pp. 18 ff. and Inscriptions in C. P. & Berar, p. 67.
3. Hiralal, Inscriptions in C. P. & Berar, p. 61; *Damoh Deepak*, p. 81.
4. Akbarnama, tr. by H. Beveridge, Vol. II, p, 325.
5. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, pp. 21-22.
6. C. B. Rai, *Narsinghpur Nayana*, p. 7.

The discovery of Sangram Shah's gold and silver coins[1] further suggests that by the time of his reign the Gond dynasty had attained an independent status and a certain standard of administrative efficiency. A notable event of his reign was the marriage of his son, Dalpat Shah, with Durgavati, a princess of remarkable beauty and, as events proved, of even greater character. She was the daughter of the Chandel ruler Salivahan of Rath and Mahoba[2].

Rani Durgavati

Sangram Shah died in 1541 A. D. His son and successor Dalpat Shah had an uneventful reign of seven years. The latter died in 1548, leaving his son Bir Narayan, who was aged only about three to five years at that time, to the care of his young wife, Durgavati. It is to the way in which she carried out this difficult trust that she owes her unique name in the history of Gondwana. According to Col. Sleeman, "of all the sovereigns of this dynasty she lives most in the pages of history and the grateful recolletions of the people." With the assistance of her ministers Adhar Kayasth and Man Brahman the Rani assumed the reins of administration as a regent for her minor son, Bir Narayan and proved her worth with outstanding courage, ability, statesmanship, judgement and prudence. She governed so wisely and well for the next sixteen years (1548-1564 A. D.) that her son, even when he attained maturity, left the whole management of affairs in her hands. In Abul Fazl's estimation she was highly renowned for her courage, ability and liberality. By the exercise of these qualities she accomplished the political unification of Gondwana, comprising 23,000 inhabited villages. Of these, 12,000 were under the direct management of her own *Shiqdars* (resident Governors) while the rest were in the possession of tributary chiefs. The heads of the various clans owed her allegiance.[3] Her army consisted of 20,000 horse and 1,000 elephant and she fought with unvarying success against Baz Bahadur and the Afgans.[4] Ruins of fortresses like Chauragarh, Singorgarh, Chaukigarh and Gunergarh (in Narsimhapur, Damoh and Bhopal districts, respectively) remind one of the strength and extent of her kingdom.

But soon a terrible blow fell on her prosperous kingdom and ended her happy rule. For some time Asaf Khan, the Mughal Viceroy at Karra-Manikpur, had been gazing with covetous eyes on this fertile valley of

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1. Annual Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, 1913-14, pp. 253-55; C. U. Wills, The Raj-Gond Maharajas of the Satpura Hills, pp. 41-43,
2. Akbarnama, Vol. II, p. 324. But according to others Durgavati was the daughter of Raja Nirat Singh, the Chandel Chief of Kalinjar. He was defeated and killed in 1545 A. D. when Kalinjar was invested and seized by Sher Shah Suri—See N. C. Mishra's *Chandel Aur Unka Rajatvakal*, p. 138 and A Cunningham's Archaeological Survey Report, Vol. XXI, p. 89.
3. Elliot and Dowson, History of India as told by Its Own Historians, Vol. V, p. 31.
4. Tarikh-i-Farishta, tr. by Briggs, Vol. IV, p. 277

Narmada. The prize seemed easy to win and the reports of her great beauty and wealth had made its aquisition doubly desirable. He obtained Akbar's permission and launched an invasion upon the Garha Kingdom in 1564, with a cavalry of 10,000, a well-disciplined infantry of 12,000 and a train of artillery.

The Rani's force was then dispersed from the capital; only 500 men were with her. She exploited the Mughal General's delay at Damoh and with great speed collected about 4,000 men around her. With this meagre strength she accepted the challenge and mounting her elephant went with her son amidst her troops, encouraging their drooping spirit with fiery exhortations. Her army was stationed in a defensive position at Narhi, about 12 miles to the east of Garha, which was bounded on three sides by sky-high mountains and on one side by the river Gour, a furious tributary of the Narmada. At first the Rani was victorious; she emerged from the ravines and pursued the fugitives. She counselled another attack on her rival at the dead of night, otherwise, she apprehended vigorous attack with renewed strength from her opponent next morning. But her own army was tired and unwilling, so the idea was dropped.

During the night, Asaf Khan proceeded with his artillery and fortified the entrance to the pass at Narhi. Durgavati, mounting her best elephant Sarman, led her troops to battle which raged fiercely till after three in the evening. Raja Bir Narayan, her son, who was now 21 years old, fought most valiantly and thrice repulsed the Imperial Army. But in his third attack he was seriously wounded. She sent him away to the fort of Chauragarh with a host of trusted followers. This withdrawal so unnerved her small army that it was soon over-powered. Suddenly an arrow pierced her right eye; she drew it out but the point remained in the wound. Just then another arrow struck her neck. That too she pulled out courageously, but the excessive pain made her swoon. By this time the river in her rear began to rise in an untimely flood and became unfordable. Finding no other way either for herself or for her troops to escape, she snatched a dagger from the driver of her elephant, and plunged it right into her bosom. True to the tradition of the Indian womanhood she preferred death to dishonour at the hands of Akbar's General. With her fell a host of her trusted followers, countless booty fell into the hands of the victorious General and an extensive territory was added to the Mughal dominions.[1]

The Mughals

It took Asaf Khan two months to settle that part of Gondwana which he had occupied after his victory at Narhi and to repair the losses his army had

1. Akbarnama, Vol. II, pp. 323-31; Tabakat-i-Akbari, Vol. II, pp. 170-71; and Muntakhab-ut-Tawarikh, Vol. II, pp. 65-66.

suffered. He then proceeded to conquer Chauragarh, where the vast treasure of the Gond rulers was kept, and where Bir Narayan was staying after he was wounded in the battle. Bir Narayan came out of the fort to oppose him and after a short struggle was slain. According to one version he was trampled under the foot of an elephant. Before his death he protected the honour of his household by ordering *Jauhar,* so often recorded in the Rajput history. The ladies of the Garha house perished in flames, under the supervision of Bhoj Kayasth and Bhikari Rumi. Four days after "that harvest of roses had been reduced to ashes," two ladies, Kamlavati, the sister of Rani Durgavati, and a fiancee of Raja Bir Narayan, were found alive, having been protected under a large piece of timber. They were sent to the *harem* of Akbar.[1]

The spoils taken by Asaf from the Chauragarh fort were immense, consisting of one hundred cooking pots full of large and valuable gold coins, bearing the legend of Allauddin Khilji, incalculable amount of uncoined gold and silver, jewels, pearls, decorated figures and utensils; pictures, be-jewelled and decorated idols; figures of animals, made wholly of gold: others rarities; and greatest of all, about 1,000 elephants. Asaf Khan remained at Chauragarh to finalise his conquest and retained for himself all the booty except 200 indifferent animals, which he sent to the Emperor.[2]

For some years after this Asaf Khan appears to have held Garha Katanga as an independent principality. Occasional warnings from the Imperial Court were of no avail. Later, Asaf Khan obtained pardon for his offence, and also restoration to his former position. From this time onwards Garha-Katanga was definitely incorporated in the Mughal dominion as a *mahal* of the *sarkar* of the same name in the *subah* of Malwa,[3] and for the next 25 years it was placed under the direct charge of a succession of Mughal officers like Shah Kuli Khan, Naranji, Kakar Ali Khan, Surjan Hada, Sadiq Khan, Baqi Khan, Mirza Aziz Khan.[4] Incidentally, it might be mentioned that the oldest rupee, which has been unearthed in the bed of the Narmada, belongs to the reign of Akbar.

Abul Fazl refers Shahpur and Chauragarh in Narsimhapur District as *mahals* in the *sarkar* of Garha in the *subah* of Malwa, contributing 3,50,000 dams, 100 cavalry and 1,000 infantry.[5]

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1. Akbarnama, Vol. II, pp. 331-32; Tabakat-i-Akbari, Vol. II, p. 171.
2. Ibid. Al Badayuni writes that so much treasure fell into the hands of Asaf Khan that the Creator alone is competent to compute its amount - Muntakhab-ut-Tawarikh, Vol. II, p. 66.
3. Ain-i-Akbari, Vol. II, pp. 110-11.
4. Akbarnama, Vol. II, pp. 405-6; Vol. III, pp. 629, 655 and 701; Maasir-ul-Umra, tr. by Brijratna Das, Vol. II, pp. 115-17; Vol. III, p. 22 & Vol. IV, p. 147; Ain-i-Akbari, Vol. I, p. 450.
5. Ain-i-Akbari, tr. by H. S. Jarret and revised by J. N. Sarkar, 1949, p. 211.

Sleeman, writing in about 1825, stated that from this time onwards local traditions speak of a regular intercourse between these Gond princes and the Mughal Emperors and henceforth the Mughal exercised *de jure* suzerainty over north Gondwana. This allegiance was of course in name only as the Mughals were content from their far off Court with only nominal submission. Practically these local rulers were so far from the ken of the Imperial Court, that except on occasions of disputed succession or other difficulty, their history ran in its own peaceful unaffected channel.

The Later Raj-Gonds

In any case the kingdom was soon after restored to the Garha kings. Chandra Shah, the next ruler obtained recognition of Akbar to his succession, by the cession of the ten districts which later formed the principality of Bhopal. At the same time, he seems to have recognised the Mughal Emperor as his over-lord, as the two princes Madhukar Shah and Prem Narayan of Garha dynasty visited the Mughal Court to pay their respects to him.[1]

Chandra Shah's rule lasted for a few years. He was succeeded by his second son, Madhukar Shah, who came to the throne after murdering his elder brother. Afterwards the remorse of his crime drove him madly to burn himself to death in the hollow of a dry *pipal* tree. The District was again the scene of historic events in 1634 A. D. When the news of Madhukar Shah's self-immolation reached the ear of Prem Narayan, his son, who was with the Emperor, he returned post-haste to Garha, leaving in turn his eldest son, Hirde Shah, at the Court. It is said that while passing through Orchha, he failed to pay a courtesy call on Raja Bir Singh Deo[2]. On his death-bed the offended king instructed his son Jujhar Singh to avenge the insult by the conquest of the Gond Kingdom. The story current in local folk-lore is that the subsequent conquest was the result of the indignation of the Bundelas, at the use of the cow for ploughing by the Gonds[3].

Consequently, in 1634 A. D., Jujhar Singh led an unprovoked attack against Raja Prem Narayan. Finding himself unable to oppose him in the field, Prem Narayan threw himself into the fort of Chauragarh where he was for some months closely besieged. The Raja in distress attempted to come to terms with the invader but Jujhar Singh declined all such overtures. Upon this, Prem Narayan sent a messenger to Shahjahan to

1. Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. VI, Pt. II, p. 630; Tujuk-i-Jehangiri, tr. by Rogers and Beveridge, pp. 379, 388, 411,
2. Sleeman, Journal of The Asiatic Society of Bhopal, Vol.VI. This explanation of Bir Singh Deo's hostility does not seem to be trustworthy, for Prem Narayan's accession took place in 1594 A. D., while Bir Singh Deo died in 1627 A. D.
3. Gorelal Tiwari, *Bundel Khand ka Itihas*, p. 107.

solicit his help against the aggression. The Emperor only despatched a man to desist Jujhar Singh from his offensive against Chauragarh, but the latter discarded the suggestion with contempt.

However, Jujhar pretended at last to raise the siege. He feigned weariness, withdrew his army to some distance from Chauragarh, and sent a messenger to Prem Narayan, indicating his readiness to retire from Gondwana, and asking for a meeting to settle terms of peace. Prem Narayan came out of the fort in the faith of a solemn oath and accompanied by his minister Jaideo Bajpai, proceeded to the tent of his enemy only to discover that he was the victim of a foul treachery. Vindictive Jujhar Singh immediately ordered his enemy's head to be severed. The latter, in a fit of desperation killed his women and died fighting along with his two or three hundred brave followers.[1] The fort with all the money and valuables it contained was occupied by Jujhar Singh.

A place is still shown to the south of the fort called 'Bundela Kot', commemorating a traditional Bundela attack. A Gond story, however, depicts Prem Narayan in the midst of his hostile enemies and in despair dedicating his head to his patron goddess. It further pictures the goddess placing her magic sword in the hands of the headless worrier and his foes in dismay flying before him.[2] Another story narrates how the immortal soul of Prem Narayan took his revenge on the Bundelas by sinking their cannon and army after they crossed the Narmada at Barmanghat.

Jujhar's triumph was, however, short-lived. Hirde Shah, son of Prem Narayan. complained to the Emperor of this unprovoked attack and his father's brutal assassination. Shahjahan had, by now, ample reasons to be angry, because the Bundela ruler had invaded the country of a fellow tributary chieftain without his previous sanction and had dishonoured the expressed Imperial order. He despatched to Orchha, Sundar Kavi Rai to induce the Bundela Chief to return Chauragarh to its lawful owner and to pay his overlord a fine of one million rupees. He made it sufficiently clear to Jujhar that in case he wanted to retain those lands, which were forcibly taken, he was to cede an equivalent portion from his own country.[3] Shahjahan chastised Jujhar Singh because it was thought impolitic to leave unperished a powerful chieftain on the edge of the Deccan road.[4]

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1. Lahauri, Badshahnama, Vol. I, pt. II, p. 94 ff; Elliot, Vol. VII, p. 47; B. P. Saksena, History of Shahjahan, p. 84.
2. E. Chatterton, The Story of Gondwana, p. 27.
3. Ibid.
4. B. P. Saksena, History of Shahjahan, p. 84.

Shahjahan's letter to Jujhar Singh ran as follows :—

"It was improper for you to attack Prem Narayan without our sanction, but worse than that was that you played false to your plighted word. Now what is done cannot be undone; and the only way to expiate your offences is to surrender the territories which you have forcibly occupied. You are also to send to court one million rupees from the treasure of Prem Narayan, which has fallen into your hands. But if you want to retain those lands, you must cede an equivalent thereof from your own country."[1]

The letter lays bare the sordid intentions of Shahjahan. Evidently, the Emperor wanted to appropriate all the fruits of Jujhar's efforts, at the expense of one of his tributary subjects.[2] Jujhar Singh refused to part with all his monetary and territorial gains and dismissed the royal messenger. He sent instructions to his son Jugraj or Vikramajit, to join him secretly from the Deccan. Shahjahan sent a large army of 20,000 with three eminent generals under the supreme command of Aurangzeb, who defeated the Bundela army at Koluri. Jujhar begged for a compromise, but the Imperial terms were stricter. He was to pay a fine of three million rupees and to surrender the *sarkar* of Biyanwan in lieu of Chauragarh.[3] Jujhar Singh followed a scorched earth policy within and outside the Chauragarh palace. He removed all provisions and destroyed the guns of the fortress, burnt all the property he had and blew up the dwellings which Prem Narayan had built within the fort. Jujhar then marched hurriedly with his son and retinue towards south via Shahpur, with whatever goods he could carry. The Imperial army quickened its pace and occupied Chauragarh. Their general, Khan Dauran mounted on the top of its main temple, called the *Azan* from there and recited prayers in the name of Shahjahan.[4] At Shahpur, Raghu Chaudhari furnished intelligence of the fleeing ruler. His party was hotly pursued and soon overpowered. The Bundelas killed some of their ladies or disfigured their features to save their honour, fought a desperate battle and fled into the woods, where they were killed with great cruelty by the local Gond inhabitants.[5]

On receiving the news of father's tragic assassination, Hirde Shah, then in attendance upon the Emperor hastened back to his country. Near the fortress of Chauragarh he is said to have met his old nurse, and on being recognised by her, was told where his father had deposited a large sum of money which, with her assistance, he got in his possession. He then contacted a number of powerful and influential landholders of the country who brought all their followers to his support. Hirde Shah launched a vigorous attack, reoccupied Chauragarh and

1. Ibid.
2. Ibid, p. 85.
3. Ain-i-Akbari, Vol. II, p. 188.
4. B P. Saksena, Op Cit., p. 88.
5. Lahauri, Op. Cit. Vol. I, pt. II, p. 94 ff; Elliot, Vol. VII, pp. 47-50. See also Sarkar's Aurangzib, Vol, I, pp. 18-37 and B.P. Saksena, Op. Cit , pp. 85-89.

other parts of his kingdom and inflicted a crushing defeat on the enemy at Koluri village, in Narsimhapur District.[1]

Thus, the District again became the scene of the Gond activity, under the overall suzerainty of the Mughals. *Maasir-ul-Umra* tells us that one Sardar Khan was appointed *tuyuldar* of Chauragarh in the 17th year (1644 A.D.) of Shahjahan's reign; but on account of his inability to control that territory, he was soon removed from the post.[2] Later, Raja Pahar Singh Bundela, brother of Jujhar Singh, was appointed as *jagirdar* of Chauragarh after the removal of Sardar Khan. When he reached the vicinity of Chauragarh, Hirde Shah is stated to have fled towards Rewa.[3]

The Garha dynasty was, thus, finally dispossessed of its territory in Narsimhapur in the 24th year of the reign of Shahjahan, i.e., in A.D. 1651. We further read that four years later, in 1655 A.D., Iftikhar Khan Khwaja Abdul Baqa was appointed *tayuldar* and *faujdar* of Chauragarh and was promoted to the rank of a *mansabdar* of three thousand horse.[4]

In order to protect his depleted kingdom from his greedy neighbours, Hirde Shah built the magnificent Gond palace at Ramnagar, and shifted his head-quarters to this fortress near Mandla. This migration was a confession of the diminishing authority of the Raj Gond rulers, for they had to retire from their great fort of Chauragarh to the obscure neighbourhood of Mandla. Under his orders a genealogy of the Royal house of Garha was prepared and inscribed in an enduring form on the walls of his new palace.

From Hirde Shah onwards the history of North Gondwana lost much of its princely glory. None of its later rulers could exploit the great political confusion after Aurangzeb's death for their territorial expansion or political supremacy. Instead, they indulged only in dynastic feuds, resulting in the steady shrinking of their borders. No one arose to arrest its decay, nor took a spirited stand against any invader who deprived them of their possession in slices. They were of easy and unambitious disposition, eager only to ward off the evil day of dissolution by buying off enemies with their steadily diminishing revenue. When at last the Marathas appeared there was no power left in them to resist their insolent demand.

1. Journal of The Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. IV, p. 632, Sleeman mentions of a Chief of Bhopal having helped Hirde Shah against the Bundela invaders, in return for which Hirde Shah is said to have ceded to him Opadgarh, containing 300 villages. But there is no mention anywhere of there being any 'Chief of Bhopal' at that time in any of the known histories.
2. Maasir-ul-Umra, Vol. II, pp. 437-38.
3. Ibid, p. 258.
4. Ibid, Vol. I, p. 201.

In 1781 the last scene in the history of the Gond dynasty of Garha took place in Chauragarh again. Narhar Shah, the last king, sought refuge in Chauragarh on being pressed by the Maratha ruler of Sagar. The Gond king was betrayed and he ended his days in imprisonment at Khurai while his dominions fell into the hands of the Marathas.

The Marathas

With the deposition of Narhar Shah, Narsimhapura or Garha Dakhantir, as it was called under the Gond rulers, passed under the rule of the Maratha Pandits of Sagar. The latter administered the country for about eighteen years. Their rule is uneventful except that during their regime there was a considerable influx of Hindu immigrants from the north and north-east. These northern settlers greatly improved the economic condition of the District and transformed fertile but uncultivated lands into villages, groves and rich cultivated fields.[1]

In September, 1785 the Bhonsla ruler of Nagpur, Mudhoji, obtained *sanads* for Mandla and the valley of the Narmada from the Poona Court on giving a written engagement to pay 27 lakhs of rupees.[2] For inexplicable reasons, however, the occupation of these territories could not take place. It was left to Raghoji, the son and successor of Madhoji, to conclude a new treaty at Poona in March 1795 for the occupation of the long coveted province of Garha-Mandla, north of the Narmada, of Hoshangabad and of areas south of the Narmada, comprising among other places Chauragarh, Bachai and Paloha, which together corresponded to modern Narsimhapur District.[3]

During the following two years Raghoji obtained possession of nearly the whole of Garha-Mandla, Hoshangabad, Sagar and Damoh. Chauragarh was not taken until February, 1799 and the forts of Tejgarh and Mandla in November of the same year.[4]

Raghoji could not defend his new acquisitions from the repeated plunder and pillage of the Nawab of Bhopal and the Pindari free-booters. Hoshangabad being the frontier District, became their easiest target, where a famine broke out in 1803-04 and a further emigration from there to the more secure and prosperous District of Narsimhapur took place. A similar batch of settlers came from Bhopal between 1807-1810, after it was raided by Amir Khan, and added to an unprecedented prosperity of the District. In 1807, Narsimhapur

1. Charls Grant, The Gazetteer of the Central Provinces, pp. lxxlx-lxxxii.
2. Jenkins, Report on the Territories of the Raja of Nagpur, p. 61.
3. Ibid, p. 62; C. U. Wills, British Relations with the Nagpur State in the 18th Century, pp. 137-138.
4. Report on the Territories of the Raja of Nagpur, pp. 62-63; British Relations with Nagpur State in the 18th Century, pp. 138-39.

and Hoshangabad were handed over to the Maratha Governor Nawab Sadik Ali Khan for the support of the frontier force.

Sadik Ali Khan had his headquarters at Srinagar in the Narsimhapur Tahsil.[1] His army consisted of 5,000 infantry with 28 guns and 5,000 horse, principally Pathans. The infantry was armed partly with maskets and had serveral corps of Arabs and Sikhs. His heavy guns were cantoned near Chauragarh. During the siege of Hoshangabad in 1807, Sadik Ali had moved with his troops against Hoshangabad.[2]

The joint revenue of Hoshangabad and Narsimhapur Districts was only seven lakhs of rupees while the amount which was spent compulsorily on Sadik Ali's troops alone in Narsimhapur District averaged about nine lakhs of rupees. It was arranged that the balance would come from the Nagpur treasury. For the first three years this remittance was regular but soon it began to lapse. To make these calamities worse Amir Khan Pindari appeared on the scene in 1809 with his horde of followers.

Amir Khan, who led those marauding parties into these territories, wanted to carve out a principality for himself from the Bhonsla territory. But the British Government was firmly opposed to any revival of the Muslim power in this part.[3] In March 1809, a body of Pindaris crossed the Narmada and proceeded towards Garha-Mandla and Chhattisgarh. At Gadarwara they completely plundered one of Bhonsla's camps, carrying away above 400 horses and a large quantity of baggage.[4] In October, 1809 Amir Khan, ignoring the British remonstrances, crossed the Narmada and appeared before Jabalpur on the 12th at the head of 12,000 horse and 7 guns,[5] Sadik Ali Khan who was surrounded by the enemy, skirmished with them successfully near Srinagar. Later, on the 17th November, Sadik Ali Khan inflicted a crushing defeat upon Amir Khan Pindari at Jabera,[6] in Damoh District. The periodic raids by other gangs, however, continued till 1818. This terrible period of disturbances and distress is commonly known in the Disrict as the "*Gardi Ka Wakt*".

Of the three principal Pindari leaders of Sindhia Shahi,[7] two had posse-

1. Srinagar is 22 miles north-east of Narsimhapur on the banks of the Umar river. It was a place of considerable importance and had a population of 10,000 during that period.
2. Letter of R. Jenkins, Resident at Nagpur to Lord Minto, Governor-General. For details see Selections from Nagpur Residency Correspondence, Vol. II, p. 4.
3. Selections from Nagpur Residency Correspondence, Vol. II, pp. 94-101.
4. Ibid, p. 91.
5. Ibid, pp. 102-3.
6. Ibid, p. 113.
7. The bulk of Pindaris were divided into two groups, the Sindhia Shahi and Holkar Shahi as they nominally professed adherence to Sindhia or Holkar.

ssions in Narsimhapur District. Chitu, perhaps the best known of the Pindari chiefs, held Barha[1] as *jagir* and he built a small fort there. The estate and the title of *Panch Hazari* or Commander of 5,000 horse were conferred on Chitu by Daulat Rao Sindhia. Similarly, Karim Khan, a commander of 1,000 horse had at one time lands is Paloha.[2]

To cope with these free-booters and also to repulse the periodic invasions by the generals of Bhopal, Sadik Ali Khan had to incur mounting expenses which could only be met by an exhorbitant tax and arbitrary fines. Raghoji too, after his loss in the war of his rich territories in Berar and Cuttack, was unable to send the stipulated amount; rather he was bent upon exacting as much as he could with all possible means.[3] Petty Chiefs and *jagirdars* were encouraged to exploit this opportunity to give vent to their predatory tendencies. Titles and dresses of honour were conferred freely on the Patels so that they might bid against one another and allow themselves to be squeezed. Rules and regulations were twisted in such a way that they became a convenient instrument of exaction. Courts of Justice were there with a regular staff, but their duty was to stand ready witnesses against some imaginary or impossible crime attributed to the unfortunate accused. In most cases a charge of adultery was brought against a wealthy person and the unfortunate victim had to purchase his release with a heavy fine. There were numerous other ingenious devices for exacting money with a show of legality. The taxes levied in different places varied with the whims and idiosyncrasies of the individual tax collector.[4]

In the accounts of Nawab Sadik Ali Khan, Governor of Narsimhapur, entries were made of fines: (1) Rs. 1,000 imposed on a Kanungo, because he was in a good condition; (2) Rs. 3,000 on Bhagwant Chaudhari for having built a large house; (3) Rs. 6,000 on Mohronpuri Gosain who was digging tanks and building temples. These persons were at once charged, found guilty and chained to the stocks till they agreed to pay the ransom. Once the landlords of Srinagar *pargana* were harassed in a similar way and they agreed to make an immediate payment of Rs. 45,000, raised by a cess of 25 per cent all round on the revenue of their villages. The result was that they were considered capable of bearing additional burden and the amount which they managed to raise was henceforth regularly added to future assessment.[5] Under these circumstances the once flourishing Narsimhapur District lost all its prosperity and became desolate almost beyond imagination. While the screw of extortion was being tightened on the District, the old Shahpur *pargana*

1. A village in Gadarwara Tahsil, 11 miles south of Gadarwara.
2. In Gadarwara Tahsil, 10 miles north of Gadarwara on the Shakkar river.
3. Report on the Territories of the Raja of Nagpur, p. 96.
4. Charles Grant, Op. Cit., pp. c and ci.
5. Ibid.

could escape with a lighter burden. It was settled that the entire revenue of this *pargana* would be utilised for the payment of the garrison of Chauragarh.

Thus, there was no attempt to enhance the nominal revenue, which otherwise would have been much heavier. A totally contrasting state of affairs prevailed in Srinagar which was the headquarters of Nawab Sadik Ali and almost surrounded by the Bhonsla territory. The concentration of troops at this place and the consequent heavy disbursement in the District went far to counter-balance the inevitable exhaustion.

The British Occupation

The year 1817 A. D. marks a turning point in the history of Narsimhapur District, for it became a British territory under the agreement made after the Battle of Sitabuldi on the 27th November of the same year. This agreement was subsequently confirmed by the Treaty of 1826. Ever since Appa Sahib assumed full powers as the ruler of the Bhonsla kingdom, he had been contemplating to nullify the growing British influence and for the restoration of the Maratha empire to its pristine splendour and glory. On the signs of trouble first appearing in and around Jabalpur, the British Commander stationed at Jabalpur was so much frightened that he fell back to the Narmada by the road towards Gadarwara.[1]

As soon as Appa Sahib started his intrigues at Nagpur, Lord Hastings sent an order to Brigadier-General Hardyman, who was deputed for Pindari extermination, to leave his headquarters at Rewa and immediately advance his force towards Nagpur. On his way he had a victorious encounter at Jabalpur with a tolerably big host of Nagpur troops. After that he was instructed to take up a position between Jabalpur and Narsimhapur in order to intercept fugitives from Nagpur. Reinforcements were sent to a force already stationed at Gadarwara under Lieutenant-Colonel Macmorine, who then proceeded to attack Srinagar. The combined army attacked and easily defeated the Srinagar garrison of considerable foot and horse with 5 guns.[2] On the 5th December, Colonel Macmorine divided his force into two columns, placed his guns between them and moved forward. He kept the cavalry to his left. At Srinagar a portion of the garrison was awaiting their advance with loaded guns while the rest was inside the fort to defend it. On the approach of the British cavalry the Maratha infantry broke and fled with a loss of about 100. On the British side the number of casualties was only 12.[3]

1. Valentine Blacker, Memoir of the Operations of the British Army in India during the Maratha War of 1817-1819, p. 119.
2. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1866, p. 36.
3. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 29.

The Chauragarh fort still continued to hold out. The *killedar*, Khande Rao Shirke, feigned obedience, made demonstration of surrender but requested a little time on the pretext of arranging payment of arrears to the garrison.[1] It soon turned out to be a mere ruse to gain time. Khande Rao gave out that the fort had been ceded to the British under compulsion and that Appa Saheb had secretly ordered him to retain its possession.

Col. G. Macmorine, Commander on the Narmada, adverts to this defiant attitude of the *killedar* of Chauragarh in a letter to Richards Jenkins, Resident at Nagpur. The Commander of the fort, he writes, had "positive orders never to deliver the fort into the hands of any authority, on the seal of the State alone, without its being accompanied by some private token of concurrence or writing from his (Raja's) own hands".[2] Col. Macmorine advocated use of force for reduction of the fort.

The British continued to make efforts to persuade Khande Rao to surrender the fort, but at the moment the *Killedar* was in no mood to oblige the foreigners. Thereupon, the British gave an ultimatum to him to surrender the fort of Chauragarh by the sun-set of 15th March, 1818. But the fort was not surrendered. Consequently, Col. Mecmorine got a proclamation issued, holding Khande Rao "an enemy of the British power" and those who afforded him the smallest assistance, as 'traitors'.[3] The Britishers intended to storm the fort immediately after 15th March, but the action had to be postponed twice; first due to priority of operations against the fort of Chanda and for the second time because of the operations against the fort of Mandla.[4]

The approach to the fort was difficult for a small force under Lieutenant-Colonel Macmorine, as it was defended by a stockade on which several guns were placed in position. These were manned by about 2,500 armed followers of the Gond Rajas of Harrai, Dilehri, Chichli and Pithehra. The fort itself, which stood on an almost perpendicular rock was garrisoned by 1,200 well-equipped regular troops with 20 mounted guns.[5] However, with the arrival of a fresh detachment under Brigadier-General Watson from Mandla the morale of the *killedar* was shattered and the fort and town of Chauragarh were evacuated on the night of 12th May 1818. Khande Rao fled away with Chain Shah, the rebel Dewan of Harrai, and threatened to ravage the country subsequently.[6] On the following day under Macmorine's orders Major Brown occupied

1. Selections from Nagpur Residency Correspondence, Vol. IV, pp. 43-44.
2. Ibid, p. 18.
3. Ibid, pp. 43-44.
4. Ibid, pp. 47 and 50.
5. Ibid, pp. 43-44.
6. Ibid, p. 292.

the fort. He found that it was well-supplied with provisions, ordinance, stores and grain.

On the day Chauragarh was occupied, i.e., in the early hours of the morning of 13th May, 1818, Appa Sahib escaped along with nine sepoys and two servants.[1] On the following day Appa Sahib was reported to have been sighted at Batkagarh, a place in the hills, about 32 miles south-west of Chauragarh, along with two to three hundred Gonds. He was also reported to have joined Chain Shah, the rebel Diwan of Harrai, on 15 May.[2] Apprehending danger to the security of Chauragarh, the British made arrangement for its protection. Accordingly, a garrison of two companies was placed in the fort.[3] Subsequently, orders were issued on 12 April, 1819 for dismantling the fort of Chauragarh.[4]

In 1820, the districts ceded by the Nagpur Raja and the Peshwa were consolidated under what was known as the 'Saugar-Nerbudda Territories' and placed under an Agent to the Governor-General, residing at Jabalpur. In the beginning, the charge of Narsimhapur District was entrusted to a Commission consisting of Lt. Montgomerie, who acted as the Administrator, and Capt. Aubert as Treasurer under the general superintendence of Lt. Col. Macmorine. Later, Lt. Montgomerie was placed directly under the authority of C. A. Molony, Commissioner at Jabalpur. He was directed "to base his administration as much as possible on existing status, correcting obvious abuses, but taking care to avoid the error of pledging the faith of Government to any system not recommended by some experience, as well as by speculative expediency."[5] The system which was evolved according to these seemingly superb directions had, however, left too much to the devices and whims of individual officers.

The first 15 years of the British rule in this District were occupied in a continuous attempt to keep together the agricultural community under an unbearable revenue demand. The early settlements under the British were founded on the late Maratha assessments, which themselves were exhorbitantly high and unduly strained, though the people had then a fair market for their produce among the troops. When these foreigners came, the Maratha force had already been withdrawn and the District was almost exhausted. The rigid

1. Appa Sahib was not long in again commencing his intrigues against the British power. He was, therefore, arrested and sent from Nagpur on 3 May, 1818 under an escort towards Allahabad. Appa Sahib contrived to make his escape on the march.
2. Adventures of Appa Sahib, pp. 16 & 18.
3. Ibid, p. 26.
4. Selections from Nagpur Residency Correspondence, Vol. IV, p. 177.
5. Charles Grant, Op. Cit.,p. XXI; Selections from Nagpur Residency Correspondence, Vol. IV, p. 98.

enforcement of these impossible assessments led to complete desertion of a number of villages.

William Sleeman, writing in 1826, records how during a bad season the collection of revenue had been so pressed in one of the wilder sub-divisions of Narsimhapur District, without allowance or consideration, by an over-zealous sub-collector that the cultivators did not care lo bear up against fresh difficulties and deserted their villages in a body. These villages had been so over grown by jungles, and tigers had so readily occupied these new converts that when better times came it was found impossible to rehabilitate them. Even the travellers shunned the country.[1] Molony stepped in to restore confidence and made a general reduction of ten per cent in the revenue. Sleeman, who was entrusted with the charge of this disorganized District, took measures to improve upon its lot.

Bad was the condition of the whole District under the British rule but worse was it in Deori, under Sindhia's Government. The oppressed farmers of the two *Panch Mahals* of Deori, viz., Chawarpatha and Tendukhera, rack-rented beyond endurance came over in a body and appealed to Sleeman for assistance. In the year 1825 these *mahals* were placed under the British management in part payment of the Gwalior contingent. In 1831, these *mahals* were ceded to the British in exchange for Shujalpur on the ground that they were depopulated and required to be restored to prosperity. The cession was confirmed by the Treaty of 1860.

Next came three successive short-term settlements under Dr. Stephens and Colonel Ousley, which left the District in such a state of impoverishment that not even the Patel had enough to buy his seeds. According to Molony himself, no other District, except Betul, had suffered so much by these short-term assessments. Administrative details were left very much to individual judgement and the habit of propping up gave rise to a general interference which was both prejudicial as well as against the genuine interest of the people. Farmers were not allowed to sublet or transfer their property nor were the village headmen consulted in the appointment or dismissal of village officials. The chieftains were entirely deprived of the management of their estates. With all these an extensive system of fraud and speculation was introduced and capital was driven away from the land. The cultivators could seldom receive the benefit of remissions that were granted from time to time.

Added to those miseries were the disastrous ravages of the Thugs who brought abject misfortune to the District. Sleeman, who was engaged in the suppression of these notorious robbers, learnt in 1831 from the confessions

1. Ibid.

of a few pardoned accomplices that, while he was administering the District in 1824, one of their gangs lived within 400 yards from his court house and that the grove of Mandesar, about 12 miles away from Narsimhapur, had been one of the greatest centres of slaughter in all India.[1] Thugs included men of all castes and they dressed as Muhammedan beggars, Hindu Bairagis or merchants- They used to strangle the most innocent travellers with the noose of a silk cord and plunder them. During 1826 to 1835 about 2,000 Thugs were arrested hanged or punished and by 1848 they were almost extinct.

The general condition of the region thus deteriorated to the extreme limit and attracted anxious attention from the British authorities. Accordingly, Martin Bird, senior member of the Board of Revenue, was deputed to visit it and review its administration. He criticized the official interference and administrative actions in the severest term and proposed, as ameliorative measures, a long-term settlement, a moderate demand, and withdrawal of all unnecessary interferencee. The long term settlement of 20 years was carried out everywhere under Colonel Ousely and Narsimhapur obtained a light assessment. The total revenue demand, fixed by him, was Rs. 3,31,249 for the whole District against the demand of Rs. 6,67,000 for the portion of the District, south of the Narmada, in the last year of the Maratha administration. Secured against foreign raids and domestic exactions, the agricultural class reaped the full benefits of the first long-term settlement. Major Erskine the Commissioner of Jabalpur, writing in 1856, spoke of the peasantry in Narsimhapur as "exceptionally comfortable".

Bird had proposed a plan for the diminution of the number of districts, under which Narsimhapur was annexed to its neighbouring District of Hoshangabad in 1836. It must have been a step of doubtful expediency, for it was reversed by Lord Ellenborough after the Bundela Rising of 1842 and Narsimhapur became again a full-fledged District.

Revenue relief, afforded by Colonel Ousley, could soothe the hardpressed tenants to a certain extent but it had no such soporific effect on the local land-owners, who were exploited and stripped to their skin. The British Government, devoid of any social philosophy, exercised all its skill and energy for economic exploitation when the Indian society itself was burdened with the most reactionary forces of feudalism and individualism. The early British administrators were fore-sighted enough to realise that the existence of this landed aristocracy could be a source of danger to the Company. Accordingly, they used every possible plea to dispossess these nobles and landlords of their property and bring the tenants directly under them. This dispossession of the wealthier classes was effected in two ways: through the settlement and the resumption of freehold land. Civil and military establishments were reconstructed according

1. Narsingpur District Gazetteer, p. 28.

to their own models to make this extermination quick and complete. Many of the chiefs were thus deprived of their official emolument and cast adrift to foster into a disaffected and dangerous class. In 1835, the North Western Provinces were constituted, and Saugor Nerbudda Territories were added to it.

The Bundela Rising

The commotion which was produced by these rapid changes reached its climax in 1842, when a few feudal chiefs rose in revolt against their foreign masters. This rebellion is known as the Bundela Rising because it was started by the influential Bundela Thakurs of northern Sagar, Jawahar Singh of Chandrapur and Madhukar Shah of Narhut. They were served with decrees of the Civil Court of Sagar to pay an impossible amount with a threat of attachment of property.[1] In retaliation they defied the order and attacked the police, some of whom they killed. Soon they were joined by a large number of landlords, residing on the northern Narmada valley.

The revolt spread like a wild fire over a vast area of the northern region which for about a year was in turmoil. The timing of the revolt was cleaverly chosen just after the British army had a crushing defeat in Afganistan, resulting in the destruction of about 16,379 of their armed men. This depletion threw them in an inferior position against these insurgents, who kept up a guerilla warfare and rose simultaneously at a number of places. The Uprising was quite a success in Narsimhapur, specially in the Chawarpatha *pargana*, where every landlord, except Dewan Pirthi Singh of Bamhni, either openly or secretly rallied under the leadership of Raja Delan Shah, the Gond Chief of Madanpur and captured Deori and Chawarpatha. At the Chawarpatha fort they worshipped its presiding deities and fed the Brahmans. At Barman they fired upon the Naib-Tahsildar and appointed Trimbak Rao as the *Amil* of Chawarpatha and Barman. From there they proceeded to Suatala and Maharajpur, and captured these places easily. In order to safeguard their position and to consolidate their possession the insurgents posted their trusted guards at all important *ghats* of the Narmada. They also appointed their own Patwari, *Nazir* and *Serishtadar* in the captured area, free of rent, on condition that they would be loyal to them against the British.[2] After Chawarpatha, Tendukhera was captured without a single shot. The Tahsildar of Narsimhapur fled at the sight of their approach.

At Hirapur, then a part of Jabalpur, the hero of the rebellion was Raja Hirde Shah, who had all along been sounding the other Thakurs about a joint insurrection. Captain Brown had intercepted certain letters which indicated that the rising was to take place on the Dussehra festival. Even when invited

1. Jubbulpore Division Records, 1842-44, Vol. 152, p. 1.
2. History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh, p. 3.

by Capt. Brown on this fastive occasion, Raja Hirde Shah and many of his associates did not go to him. Hirde Shah's followers attacked the police post of Gujpura under the leadership of Raja Gajraj Singh. The Jabalpur detachment was sent to Hirapur to have an encounter with these rebels but they were delayed at the Narmada for want of conveyance and when they ultimately reached the spot the insurgents had already marched to Tejgarh on their way to Chawarpatha. Under General Tomb's order, Colonel Watson proceeded towards Tejgarh, but Hirde Shah had ample time to escape. Some of his men were killed by the British troops but he himself, in association with the ex-Raja of Tejgarh, succeeded in eliminating the foreign power from a large part of the trans-Narmada portion of Narsimhapur, Sagar and J abalpur.

Raja Hirde Shah was, however, captured along with his whole family on 22nd December, 1842. With the capture of Hirde Shah the movement received a set-back. Capt. Wakeman succeeded in capturing Madhukar Shah. He was publicly executed and his body was burnt behind the Sagar Jail. In this revolt the rebel leaders had full support and active help from the common cultivators of the whole region lying north of the Narmada. One of them, Thakur Mardan Singh, who was selected by the district authorities as an intelligencer to the British troops was an active spy and a zealous partisan of the rebels. Not only did he retard and mislead Capt. Wakeman's movement, but he was also the agent-provocateur in a night attack upon Wakeman's force. Sukhal Tiwari of Pendra, likewise, deceived his master and gave supplies. shelter and protection to the rebels. The very fact that the insurgents could move openly en-masse in broad day light and make a complete circuit of the District without hindrance, proves that the success of the Bundela Rising was largely due to the public support, given to them ungrudgingly.

Curiously enough excepting a few Gond chiefs, all the landlords of the southern valley of the river Narmada were devoid of these symptoms of dissatisfaction, though they were the worst victims of misgovernment. Once the rebels crossed the Narmada and plundering a few villages on their way, reached Bachai.[1] From there they made for the estates of the Gond Raja of Dilheri and the Raja of Fatehpur, in order to secure some substantial help. They were unsuccessful in their endeavour and driven back to the otherside of the river by a party of matchlockmen under the Naib-Tahsildar of Chawarpatha.[2] On their way back they plundered and burnt the town of Sainkheda.[3]

By April, 1843 the disturbances practically ceased with decisive victory on

1. A village, located 9 miles south-east of Narsimhapur.
2. In Gadarwara Tahsil, 14 miles north-west of Narsimhapur.
3. It is located at a distance of 14 miles in the north-west of Gadarwara.

neither side. At least a compromise was struck; the British administration felt that it was impolite and impossible to punish such a large body of influential leaders, who on their part realised, that with such off-hand and isolated efforts, without any co-ordination or organised leadership it was impossible to overthrow the British domination.

The turmoil which was subsiding gradually flared up again in a sympathetic revolt when, in 1843, the Gwalior Durbar rose in a rebellion against the British, culminating in the battle of Maharajpur. When the pride of that Durbar was crushed, peace was restored in Saugor Nerbudda Territories. Assessing the situation the Governor-General later admitted that the main cause of the outbreak was the administration of Government in a spirit of "harshness and repressiveness towards the people."[1] It did much damage to cultivation and led to agricultural depression in Saugor Nerbudda Territories.[2]

Lord Ellenborough inaugurated the newly gained peace by making a complete reorganization of the Province. It was separated from the North Western Provinces and again placed in charge of an Agent to the Governor-General. The suppressed districts were reconstituted and the administrative staff was replaced by an entirely new body of officers headed by Col. Sleeman. According to this new policy, Narsimhapur was again made a separate District. Sleeman introduced fresh policy in administration and succeeded to an extent in pacifying the discontended masses and chiefs alike.

Unfortunately the Saugor Nerbudda Territories were again linked up with North Western Provinces. With this transfer the region came under the Sadar Board of Revenue, the administrative reforms of which, relating to sub-division of properties, produced further adverse effect on the landed proprietors who had already been expropriated, and dispossessed of their holdings. It was admitted, later, that this attempt of obliterating the landed aristocracy involved a great political blunder.[3] This cruel, wrong and grievous error converted into bitter enemies those whom sound policy would have made friends and supporters of the State. The smouldering discontent among these alienated landlords was further aggravated by a series of social changes and it ultimately burst into the Great Revolt of 1857.

The Great Revolt of 1857

The Great Revolt of 1857 was the outcome of the changing conditions which disturbed the placid currents of Indian life in all its aspects and produced

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1. Jubbulpore Division Bundle Correspondence (Political), Case File No. 22 of 1841-1843, pp. 1024-26.
2. S. B. Chaudhary, Civil Disturbances during the British rule in India, p. 178.
3. J. W. Kaye, A History of the Sepoy War in India, p. 165.

tremendous commotions. Dalhausi's notorious 'Doctrine of Lapse,' enraged the dispossessed princelings, the extension of the Western education, English learning and English law as well as the Hindu Remarriage Act, the Religious Disabilities Act and abolition of "*Sati*" roused resentment among the orthodox sections of the Hindus and the Muslims and the resumption of rent-free tenure grievously affected the old aristocratic families. Lastly, a consciousness of power had grown up in the army and the cry of the greased cartridges of the newly introduced Enfield rifles set the spark that enkindled the embers of discontent. It brought the latent spirit of revolt into action and the whole country from the Sutlej to the Narmada was ablaze.

In the Saugor Nerbudda Territories the Great Revolt came to a climax more slowly but in the long run, proved far more troublesome. Even for some weeks after the outbreak of the rebellion in Meerut, everything was calm in this region, except that in early May, 1857 stories were current to the effect, that *ghee*, *atta* and sugar had been adulterated by order of the Government with pig's and cow's blood and bone, to molest the sanctity of religion of both the Hindus and the Muslims.[1] Signs of the approaching storm appeared as early as in January 1857 in the shape of small wheaten cakes *(chapatis)* which were passed in the most mysterious manner from village to village in most of the districts of the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories.[2]

The District of Narsimhapur was then garrisoned by four companies of the 28th Madras Native Infantry under the command of Captain Woolley, and Captain Ternan was the Deputy Commissioner. On an evening in February 1857, while the latter was relaxing outside his tent the village Kotwal came running with a bundle of small *chapatis*. He had received them in the morning with instructions to distribute among watchmen of all nearby villages. After distribution he had still some surplus and he knew not how to dispose of these. Captain Ternan, who had a similar experience in the Bundela Rising at once concluded that those *chapatis* were a symbol and a message, sent to the land to unsettle the minds of the great mass of people. The *chapatis* cautioned the authorities to prepare themselves for a sudden and dangerous event that would come upon them.[3] The Captain reported the matter to Erskine, the Commissioner of Jabalpur but he considered the idea "far-fetched, absurd and impossible."

All was quiet in Narsimhapur till the end of July 1857, but "rebels were gradually closing in." On getting the news, that subsequently proved to be false, that rebels from Indore were fast advancing towards Hoshangabad,

1. Kaye and Malleson, History of the Indian Mutiny, 1857-58, Vol. V, pp. 62-63.
2. W. C. Erskine, Narrative of Events Attending the Outbreak of Disturbances and Restoration of Authority in the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories in 1857-58, para 5.
3. Kaye and Malleson, Op. Cit., pp. 62-63.

the Deputy Commissioner and Commanding Officer at Hoshangabad proposed to Erskine to send the 28th Madras Native Infantry from Narsimhapur to Hoshangabad and to abandon Narsimhapur town and District. Erskine, however, did not agree.[1]

Excepting three landlords, namely, the Raja of Hirapur and the Gond Chiefs of Madanpur and Dhilwar, who had their estates in the hilly tracts bordering Bhopal or Saugor, the major portion of the District remained unaffected during this Revolt. Perhaps the recent Bundela Rising had dampened the revolting spirit of its inhabitants or perhaps they were too content with the prosperity resulting from the Settlement of 1835, so that they were not enthusiastic enough to hazard a new risk.

In August 1857 inroads were made by the Sagar and Bhopal rebels into Chawarpatha *pargana* and the town and the Police Station of Tendukheda were plundered[2] by them. To restore order, two companies of the 28th Madras Native Infantry, were called back from Jabalpur to Narsimhapur. On the 2nd October a detachment was sent to deal with the rebels who had assembled at Mainapani on the Sagar-Narsimhapur road. The *Dak* between Narsimhapur and Jabalpur was restored by posting an army to patrol the road. On 10th October, Shri Gajadhar Tiwari, a sepoy of the 52nd Native Infantry, which had revolted at Jabalpur, was convicted by a Court Martial of Mutiny and Desertion and was sentenced to be blown away from a gun. The sentence was executed the same day at 5 p.m. on the parade ground at Narsimhapur.[3]

By the middle of October the District was in great danger. The *pargana* north of the Narmada was again invaded by Nawab Ali Khan[4] of Bhopal with about 150 Pathans from Rahatgarh. He was accompanied by Narwar Singh of Dhilwar in Narsimhapur, who was a rebel in 1842-43, Balbhadra Singh, *malguzar* of Sahajpur in Sagar District, a few other local rebels along with 500 matchlockmen and a few rebellious customs peons. They again plundered and burnt Tendukheda and Belkheri. The Deputy Commissioner announced a reward of Rs.500 for the capture of Narwar Singh.

The greatly disturbed conditions in the Chawarpatha *pargana* of Narsimhapur District is evident from a despatch dated October 16, 1857 from Erskine to the Lt. Governor of the Central Provinces. He writes, "many thakoors and Pathan chiefs have lately risen, and after combining their followers, have taken

1. W. C. Erskine, Op. Cit., paras 89-93.
2. Ibid, para 143.
3. Weekly Narrative of Events in Narsinghpur from October 5 to 11, 1857, Register of Mutiny Rewards and Confiscations, G. XII, No. 25. (Collectorate, Narsimhapur).
4. According to S. B. Chaudhary, Civil Rebellion in the Indian Mutinies, 1857-59, p. 226, his name was Nawab Adil Mohammad Khan.

possession of the greater part of our villages and police posts there. The Deputy Commissioner can, at the most, only protect his station and the portion of his district to the south of Nerbudda with the weak wing of the Madras regiment at his disposal, and if the chiefs to the south of the river rise, which he expects, he will not be able to save his rich district."[1]

About the same time another rebel leader, Meherban Singh, went to Hirapur. In company with 200 rebels of 52nd Native Infantry, Meherban Singh threatened Narsimhapur.[2] The rebels led by Sheo Baksh Lodi[3] from the Bargi *pargana* of Jabalpur also entered from the south-east corner. Thus, the District was threatened from three directions simultaneously. Captain Ternan accompanied by two companies of the 28th Madras Native Infantry and two six-pounder guns under the command of Captain Wolley, marched to Sankal to face Meherban Singh, who by that time captured a small fort commanding the village. After a short encounter the rebel leader fled, with the result that the insurgents at Tendukheda quickly retired.[4]

On 18 November, Capt. Ternan took possession without resistance of Dhilwar. Narwar Singh, who was in the village, fled. His house was destroyed by the British. Narwar Singh was hotly pursued up to Chandpura village, but he was able to give a silp again. One of his nephews was, however, captured and hanged in Dhilwar. On reaching Tendukhera on 20 November, that town of 2,000 houses was found to be completely deserted. The town was made over for a time to Rao Surat Singh.[5]

On 17 November, while the police had deserted their post, Meherban Singh came from the other side of the Narmada and burnt the police post at Sankal. A detachment of the 28th Madras Native Infantry was sent out under Walton, who drove away the rebels and restored confidence in that part of the District. Meherban Singh continued his insurrectionary activities till March, 1858. Meanwhile, Capt. Ternan, along with Captain Woolley's detachment of infantry and two guns, was patrolling the Sagar Road in co-operation with a detachment under Captain Roberts of the 31st and Captain Mayne of the 3rd Irregulars from Sagar. They were successful in driving away the rebels from that part of the District and finally killing Ganjan Singh, a landholder of some note with many of his followers. From there they made a rapid march

1. Further Parliamentary Papers (No. 8) Relative to the Insurrection in the East Indies, pp. 82-83.
2. Weekly Narrative of Events in Narsinghpur from October 12 to 19, 1857, (Collectorate, Narsimhapur).
3. S. B. Chaudhary, Op. Cit., p. 226.
4. W. C. Erskine, Op. Cit., Paras 247-250.
5. Weekly Narrative of Events in Narsinghpur from 16 to 22 November 1857,(Collectorate, Narsimhapur).

upon Singhpur, captured Delganjan, a rebel leader, and hanged him immediately.[1]

Again, on 9 January, 1858 about 4,000 rebels from Rahatgarh and Bhopal, including 250 Pathan horse under Abdul Mohammad Khan of Bhopal, Bahadur Singh of Sagar and other leaders, aided by Delan Shah of Madanpur and Narwar Singh, attacked Tendukheda. The police under Binda Prasad and some matchlockmen under Nizam Shah of Madanpur and Rao Surat Singh Lodhi of Imjhira, who were loyal to the British, defended the place for some time. Ultimately, both Tendukhera and Imjhira, which fell to the rebels were again plundered and burnt. Capt. Ternan advanced with his troops of two companies of the 28th Madras Native Infantry, two guns, two troops of the Hyderabad cavalry, some mounted and ordinary police, some match lockmen and the patrolling troops from Sagar against the insurgents and drove them away to Rahatgarh. Immediately after that the British made a dash in the rebel village of Madanpur, captured some rebels, including the son and grandson of Delan Shah, and killed others. Thus, the Chawarpatha *Pargana* was cleared of all rebels[2]. The absconding leader Delan Shah, too, was captured in May, 1858 and hanged.[3]

At last on 1st February, 1859 when Captain Gordon took over the charge of Narsimhapur District from Captain Ternan it was in perfect peace. In this Great Revolt most of the cheif *malguzars* of the District were either passive or helped actively the British officers with their horsemen and retainers. For their active help they were recommended for rewards. These rewards consisted mostly of a grant of landed property with *Khilat* of shawls, sword, shield and remission of *Jumma* for life or a privilege of obtaining a chair.[4] To deal with the rebels and their ring leaders the British officers were invested with the summary powers to punish their enemy according to their discretion and crush every vestige of independent spirit in them.

Growth of Freedom Movement

The events of the Great Revolt of 1857, and its subsequent repercussions were so vivid on the general minds that these conciliatory efforts for pacification could do little to alleviate their bitterness. On the contrary, the impact it created gradually brought about a national awakening, sense of patriotism, and consciousness in the common man to rise against the foreign Government. At first this patrotic urge was confined within the educated few, but with the intellectual and cultural renaissance of the 19th century ideas spread gradually among

1. W. C. Erskine, Op. Cit., paras 276-280.
2. Ibid, paras 330-38.
3. Ibid, para 422.
4. Record on the Mutiny of 1857 (Collectorate, Narsimhapur).

larger sections of the people. The growth of this national consciousness found active expression in the formation of the Indian National Congress in 1885. Its seventh session was held at Nagpur, resulting in a tremendous stimulus to the freedom movement in the Mahakoshal region.

The progress of the nationlist movement entered its second phase after the partition of Bengal in 1905 by Lord Curzon. It roused a fierce spirit of resistance among the people, and gave a new turn to the freedom struggle bringing in the cult of *Swadeshi* and boycott. In Narsimhapur this nationalist sentiment was evident at the turn of the present Century when people were taught to use home-made goods and *Khadi* by a few nationalist workers. The Partition of Bengal, the Jabalpur Conference of 1906 under the presidentship of Sir Gangadhar Rao Chitnavis, and the publication of Hind Kesari from Nagpur in 1907 had its cumulative effect on the District, which had at that time 33 Honorary Magistrates, about 100 *darbaris*, and two *malguzars*, having rent-free estates, gold medals and swords for their loyal services during the Great Revolt.

These pro-British elements formed a party of their own, known as the Liberal League. Fortunately for them, and unfortunately for the nationalists, I. G. Bourne took over charge of the District in 1918, and instantly engaged himself in all possible ways to crush the movement. He was a typical representative of the British Imperialism, ruthless, arrogant and imbued with a feeling of racial superiority. On his first tour he raised a lakh of rupees for the War fund from the already indebted *malguzars*, even though the armistice had been signed. An article on these excesses, published in the *Karmavir* of Jabalpur, created widespread sensation. For Darbars, shows and other wasteful purposes the Deputy Commissioner invited donations. Once in 1924, he arranged for the human excreta to be thrown while the District Conference was in progress at Barman and an enraged crowd of a thousand came with lethal weapons to kill him.[1] In retaliation the nationalist leaders like Gaya Dutta, M.L. Kochar, Shankarlal Chaudhary, etc., formed an anti-party to win over the loyalist group. After a successful effort most of the *malguzars* of the Narsimhapur and Gadarwara tahsils joined them and subscribed liberally for the Congress Session at Nagpur.

In 1918 a branch of the Home Rule League was opened in the District.[2] On 24 November, 1918, the Provincial Congress Committee was recognised, and the members elected to the All India Congress Committee, among others, included Manik Chandra Kochar of Narsimhapur.[3] This was followed by the

1. Collection of extracts from records and statements of leaders and other materials for the History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh.
2. Prayag Dutt Shukul, *Kranti Ke Charan*, p. 136.
3. Ibid, p. 180.

inauguration of a branch of the Congress in 1920-21. Their main activities were to propagate the Congress ideal of non-co-operation by boycotting foreign goods schools. colleges and law courts, resignation of titles, picketting was convened and burning of foreign clothes. In 1920, an important meeting of liquor shops at Narsimhapur to decide whether election to the Legislature should also be boycotted. Leaders like Ravi-Shankar Shukla, Raghavendra Rao, Dr. Munje, Daulat Singh, Makhanlal Chaturvedi, Vishnudatta Sukul and others attended the meeting and opted for non-co-operation.

Non-Co-operation Movement

During this period the picketting of liquor shops was intensified. As a result of the vigorous compaign at the liquor shops the Congress volunteers were able to reduce the excise income of the District from one lakh rupees to twenty-five thousand only. In 1923, the Government was forced to declare Narsimhapur a prohibited area for any kind of liquor. In the same year from April to August, when Nagpur was in turmoil over the Flag *Satyagraha*, volunteers were sent from the District to participate in its programme.

Civil Disobedience Movement

When Gandhiji launched the Civil Disobedience Movement in April, 1930 and undertook the historic march from Sabarmati to Dandi, Narsimhapur too, along with the rest of the Country, was eager and ready to make its contribution to the freedom struggle. This was the signal for a mass movement on a large scale, involving mass strike, boycott of British goods, and breaking of salt and forest laws. In Narsimhapur, as the District is far away from the sea shore, the salt *satyagraha* was not practical. The *satyagraha* was, therefore, mainly confined to public reading of proscribed literature. Simultaneously Forest *satyagraha* was launched with great vigour by breaking all forest laws in an organized way. At Chichli, it lasted for full one week, but in the Bachai forest the entire team of volunteers was arrested before they could start it. The Government adopted stern measures to repress the movement by promulgating Emergency Power Act of 1931. The District Council of Narsimhapur took an active part in the political activities during the period. The Government retaliated by withholding grant-in-aid to the Council.[1]

The first phase of this Movement ended after the famous Gandhi-Irwin Pact was signed on 5 March, 1931. But as no agreement was possible between the Indian leaders and the British Prime Minister on the Common problem the second phase of the Movement was started by the Congress Working

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1. Note on the Civil Disobedience Movement in the C. P. & Berar, (31st December, 1930) p. 19.

Committee after Gandeiji's arrest on 4 January, 1932. It terminated for all practical purposes with the issue of the White Paper on 17 March, 1933.

The police again took recourse to Draconian methods to repress the Movement. Narsimhapur had its full share of punishment where, in addition to fines, whipping was resorted to as a convenient method to deal with the jungle tribes. To them the forest laws were always an unjustifiable encroachment on their birth-right. The Unlawful Association Ordinance (IV of 1932) was applied to Narsimhapur, along with other districts of the Central Provinces[1]. The Mahakoshal Congress Committee as well as all the District Congress Committees were declared illegal[2]. A wave of resentment passed over the whole region when in 1932 Narsimhapur was amalgamated with Hoshangabad and thus lost its entity as a separate revenue District.

In the course of his tour for collection for the Harijan Fund, Mahatma Gandhi came to the District in 1933. People rose to the occasion and gave a tremendous ovation to the great leader. A meeting was held at Kareli, the headquarters of the District Congress Committee, and a purse was presented to him. Congress activities received a great fillip and were further intensified and stimulated after Gandhiji's visit.

In 1935 came the new India Act, and once more the Congress decided to work the reforms introduced by this Act. It swept the polls in the election of 1937 and formed Congress Ministries in seven Provinces including the Central Provinces. Ministries were successfully working the reforms till the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939, when against her wish India was declared a belligerent country against the Axis powers. The Congress took exception to this action and a strongly worded declaration was issued by the Working Committee, refusing "co-operation in a war which is conducted on imperialistic lines." The Committee asked the British Government to state whether their war aims included the elimination of imperialism and the treatment of India as a free nation. As no satisfactory reply was forthcoming all Congress Ministries resigned in October-November 1939.

On 8 August, 1940 Viceroy Linlithgo approached the Congress with his offer to set up, after the War, a representative body to devise a new constitution for India. The Congress regarded this offer unsatisfactory and inaugurated in October, 1940 the Individual *satyagraha* under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi. Inspired by this patriotic call persons like Thakur Niranjan Singh, Shyam Sundar Narayan Mushran, Kundanlal Tiwari, Shankar Dutt Tiwari,

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1. C. P. Gazette Extra-Ordinary, Political and Military Department, Notification No. 224-C. D., dated 19 January, 1932.
2. Ibid, No. 52-C, D. dated 8 Jaunary 1932,

Ram Singh Chauhan, Thakur Rudra Pratap Singh, Chaudhri Pushusingh, Daulat Singh, Harinarayan Rathi, Shyamlal Jaiswal, B.P. Pachori and others of Narsimhapur joined in the Movement. They were arrested under the Defence of India Rules and sentenced to various terms of rigorous imprisonment and heavy fines. Of about 2,800 freedom fighters who were permitted by Mahatma Gandi to offer *Satyagraha* in Mahakoshal area, 311 *Satyagrahis* hailed from Narsimhapur District. These persons offered *Satyagraha* between October, 1940 and May, 1941.

"Quit India" Movement

After the failure of the Cripps Mission in April 1942, the Working Committee of the Congress adopted a resolution at Wardha, on 14 July. It called upon the British power to "Quit India" within a specific time because "India in bondage could play no effective part in defending herself and affecting the fortunes of the war, that was desolating humanity." As it had no appreciable effect on the British Government a resolution was passed on 8 August 1942 in the Bombay Session of the All India Congress Committee, in favour of starting a mass struggle on the widest possible scale. Although the Congress had not made actual preparations the Government decided to strike immediately On 9 August all the important Congress leaders were arrested, and all Congress Committees were declared unlawful associations. The entire Government machinery, the National War Front Organisations, and all parties opposed to the impending struggle were mobilised to combat the Movement. The Press was warned not to publish the full text of Gandhiji's speech of 8 August. Special powers were conferred on the army officers to use force (even to the causing of death) against saboteurs.

On 10 August Narsimhapur District Congress Committee was declared an unlawful association. The headquarters of the Committee at Kareli was searched and records were seized. The same day Raghunath Singh Killedar was arrested.[1] Arrest warrant was also issued against Thakur Niranjan Singh but he could not be apprehended. The arrest of leaders caused widespread resentment. In consequence, complete *hartal* was observed at Gadarwara from 10 to 12 August. *Hartals* were also observed at Kareli and Gotegaon on the 11 and 12 August. Students, who were generally in the forefront of the "Quit India Movement", took out processions in Narsimhapur and Gadarwara for a number of days, following the 10 August. Attempts were made to hold public meetings at Gadarwara, Narsimhapur and Kareli but in every case the local leaders were also arrested and meetings dispered. Two local leaders were arrested at Tendukhera on 14 August for holding a public meeting, where

1. The account of the Quit India Movement is bassed on the files on the Civil Disobedience Movement of 1942-43 preserved in the Collectorate, Narsimhapur.

strong anti-British sentiments were expressed. On the same day a defiant procession was cane-charged by the police at Gadarwara. Fearing violence, all those at Gadarwara, known for their nationalistic views, were asked to deposit their arms and ammunition in the police station. One more procession was formed at Gadarwara on 14 August with the object of hoisting the Congress flag on the tahsil buildings. Eight persons were arrested and the crowd dispersed peacefully.

Four days later, i. e., on 18 August, situation in Tendukhera village took a serious turn when a local leader, Babulal Jain, who was actively engaged in Civil Disobedience Movement was arrested. This arrest caused a crowd of about 300 persons to surround the police party and to adopt violent postures. The police dispersed the crowd with a lathi charge.

A tragedy occurred at the village Chichli on August 23 when a man and a women, Mansaram and Gorabai were killed as a result of police firing. The whole episode developed on account of the arrest of Narmada Prasad and Babulal, who had delivered anti-British speeches two days back at a public meeting at Chichli. As soon as the arrest was effected, a big crowd surrounded the police and was reported to have started pelting stones. Later, police reinforcements arrived from Gadarwara and Narsimhapur. The crowd consisted of about 1,500 persons and some of them were stated to have been armed with lathis and axes. A lathi charge was made but it Proved ineffective. To intimidate the crowd, the police fired 20 rounds, brutally killing two persons, as stated above, on the spot. On the following day 14 persons, who took leading part in the procession, were arrested.

The restive populace was resorting also to the acts of sabotage. At Babai-Kalan, near Bohani railway station, the railway signal was tampered with, while at Bohani a batch of students broke glass-panes of the railway station. A few cases of sabotage, involving cutting of telegraph and telephone wires, were reported from Kaudiya and Kareli. As a punitive measure the District Magistrate imposed a collective fine of Rs. 500 each on Kaudiya, Bohani and Sihora villages and of Rs. 300 on Harrai village. A fine of Rs. 500 was later imposed on the village Babai-Kalan but was ultimately refunded.

Inspite of a large number of arrests and intimidation, the people of the District carried on the freedom struggle with undimmed courage. Kaudiya village was the scene of a big public meeting on 27 August, where a number of speakers delivered fiery speeches and were, consequently, arrested. Some people tried to promote Forest *Satyagraha* at Suatala and were apprehended. The Movement continued with some vigour during the whole of September and October. Occasional attempts were made to organise processions and public meetings at various places of the District. Distribution of leaflets, containing

material prejudicial to the existence of the foreign power, became a common feature. A circular was issued to all schools of the District Council to celebrate Gandhi Jayanti on 2 October.

To arrest the revival and intensification of Congress activities, the Government rearrested seven prominent leaders in the District on 9 August 1943. These leaders were arrested in August 1942 but were later released on completion of their terms of imprisonment.

Gradually the outward signs of the Movement subsided but the sullen resentment against the foreign domination continued to dominate the thinking of the pepole. This situation dragged on till 1945, when the Congress leaders were released. Their release was followed by negotiations for the transfer of power to the Indian hands. The Indian Independence Bill was passed by the British Parliament on the Ist July 1947, according to which the country attained Independence in the mid-night of 14 August, 1947.

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

Reorganisation of the States on the 1st November, 1956, once again brought Narsimhapur on the District map of the State. It has a population of 4.12 lakhs and land area of 1,979 sq. miles (12.67 lakhs acres) in 1961. This gives roughly 1.3 acres of land area *per capita*. Though small, the District boundary runs with the boundaries of as many as seven districts of which Sagar in the north and Jabalpur in the east are significant. Narsimhapur ranks 40th in the State in order of population with only 4,12,406 souls, very much below the average population of district in the State, viz., 7.53 lakhs. However, it represented 21.61 per cent increase over the population a decade ago. Divided in two tahsils, Gadarwara in the west and Narsimhapur in the east, the population is very nearly equally distributed between them. Narsimhapur District is somewhat more densely populated than the State as a whole with 208 persons per sq. mile, and 19th in descending order of population density in the State. Among tahsils, Gadarwara is more thickly populated than Narsimhapur. Narsimhapur Tahsil is comparatively more sparse, the reason being that greater portion of it is under forests.

Tahsil-wise break-up of population and area is given in the Table below:—

Tahsil	No. of Villages	Area		Population			Density per Sq. Mile
		Sq. Miles @	Sq. Kms.	Male	Female	Total	
Gadarwara	476	845.6	2,190.1	1,50,153	99,770	2,04,923	242
Narsimhapur	599	882.8	2,286.3	1,06,085	1,01,398	2,07,483	235
Narsimhapur District	1,075	1,981.4 *(1,979.0)	5,131.7 *(5,125.0)	2,11,238	2,01,168	4,12,406	208

*According to Surveyor General of India.

@ According to the Director of Land Records.

Note:—1. The State Survey area figures for the District include the forest area of 253 sq. miles (655.3 sq. kms.). As tahsil-wise break-up of this area is not available, it is not included in tahsil area.

2. According to the Director of Land Records, the revised area of the District in 1962-63, was 1,983 sq. miles. Gadarwara extended to 913 sq. miles and Narsimhapur 1,070 sq. miles, giving a density of 224 and 194, respectively.

Rural area comprising 1,075 villages (82 uninhabited) extending over an area of 1,962.1 sq. miles (5,081.7 sq. kms.) contained 88.1 per cent of the District population leaving the rest 11.9 per cent in four urban centres extending over an area of 19.3 sq. miles (about 50 sq. kms.) in 1961. The rural-urban ratio in 1961 was 22:3, which clearly brings out to the fore the predominance of rural population of the District.

Gadarwara Tahsil having only one town is less urban than Narsimhapur Tahsil which has three. Yet in contrast the former bears more pressure of population (224) per sq. mile than the latter (194).

Proportion of Sexes

Inset below shows the growth and changes in sex-ratio during the sixty years since 1901 :—

Census Year	Population			Sex-Ratio (No. of Females per 1.000 Males)		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Rural	Urban
1901	3,15,518	1,54,694	1,60,824	1,040	1,043	997
1911	3,25,677	1,61,795	1,63,882	1,013	1,015	985
1921	3,15,162	1,58,345	1,56,817	990	997	904
1931	3,21,481	1,61,417	1,60,064	992	997	929
1941	3,34,991	1,69,862	1,65,129	972	978	920
1951	3,39,110	1,72,264	1,66,846	969	975	921
1961	4,12,406	2,11,238	2,01,168	952	961	890

The pattern of sex-ratio has undergone substantial change during the period of six census decades, since 1901. Both, the District sex-ratio as well as rural sex-ratio steadily dropped in each successive census decade. Commencing with a favourable sex-ratio to the female sex in the beginning of the Century in the District, the sex-ratio dropped steeply in 1911, though still retaining its edge over males. The influenza and scarcity ridden decade of 1911-21 altered the sex-ratio vitally, recording 990 females per 1,000 males in 1921. Though the next decade made a slight improvement by recording a two point gain over 1921 yet in each successive decade, the sex-ratio became more unfavourable to fair sex till 1961, when it recorded only 952 females per 1,000 males. Various causes are responsible for this decline in proportion. Shoobert in 1931 gave two reasons for the decline. First, the influenza epidemic of 1918-19, which is known to be more severe on female-folk, and secondly the absence in recent years of famine mortality.[1]

1. Census of India, 1931, Central Provinces and Berar, pt. I, p. 152.

During all these sixty years the sex-ratio in rural area has always been higher than in urban area of the District. In 1901 there were 1,043 females per 1,000 males in the rural area as against 997 in urban area. In 1961 the sex-ratio receded to 961 in rural against 890 in urban area. The lower sex-ratio in the urban area may be attributed to the movement of men to town for work, their families following them after considerable time.

During the 1951-61 decade the sex-ratio in the District fell from 969 in 1951 to 952 in 1961. Narsimhapur Tahsil, however, showed higher sex-ratio (956) than Gadarwara Tahsil (949) in 1961. Yet both registered a fall during the decade. In case of Gadarwara Tahsil, however, it was more steep, i. e., from 977 to 949 in 1961; whereas Narsimhapur Tahsil experienced only a small variation in its sex composition.

Growth of Population

First census of the District was taken in the year 1866, and the subsequent decennial censuses in the 19th Century were conducted in 1872, 1881 and 1891. In 1866 the population of the District was 3.37 lakhs which increased to 3.39 lakhs in 1872 and 3.65 lakhs in 1881. A further increase of about 0.4 per cent was also registered in the following decade 1881-91, bringing the total to 3.67 lakhs. Though the increase of 0.4 per cent was lowest in the then Central Provinces, yet it was unexpected in the context of the ordeals through which the District passed during the decade. The last six years of this decade were unhealthy except 1888, in each of which the number of deaths exceeded the number of births which resulted in the low growth rate. In 1887 and again in 1890 the District lost heavily from severe epidemic of cholera: In fact the population of Narsimhapur Tahsil decreased by 1.4 per cent but better condition in Gadarwara redeemed the position to some extent. During the decade the District could not gain in population by way of immigration also. On the contrary it was supposed that "Narsinghpur must, within the last ten years, have contributed considerably to the extensive emigration which has taken place from the Province to the Central India States. The people of the district are known to be deeply indebted and the adjoining state of Bhopal probably furnishes a safe refuge from money lender's toils."[1] The average birth-rate during the decade 1881-91 was 41 per mille and the death-rate 39 per mille, the highest in the Province.

The growth of population in the District between 1901 and 1961 is presented in the Table below :—

District/	Census year						
Tahsil	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
Narsimhapur	1,50,305	1,53,482	1,52,116	1,57,012	1,62,343	1,64,818	2,07,483
Gadarwara	1,65,213	1,72,195	1,63,046	1,64,469	1,72,648	1,74,292	2,04,923
Narsimhapur District	3,15,518	3,25.677	3,15,162	3,21,481	3,34,991	3,39,110	4,12 406

1. Census of India, 1891, Central Provinces and Feudatories, pt. I, p. 49.

During the past 60 years from 1901 to 1961, the population of the District increased steadily in each successive census decade, except for the unhealthy decade 1911-21. The District population increased by 30.71 per cent during this period, whereas that of Narsimhapur Tahsil increased by 38.04 per cent and of Gadarwara by 24.03 per cent. Important features of population variation in the District are generally low growth-rate except in the last decade when it was unusually high and decrease in population in 1911-21 decade.

The net variation in the District population since 1901 can best be seen from the following Table :—

District/Tahsil	Percentage Variation in						
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
Narsimhapur							
Decade variation	—	+2.11	—0.89	+3.22	+3.29	+1.52	+25.89
Cumulative variation	—	+2.11	—1.20	+4.46	+8.01	+9.66	+38.04
Gadarwara							
Decade variation	—	+4.23	—5.31	+0.87	+4.97	+0.95	+17.57
Cumulative variation	—	+4.23	—1.31	+0.45	+4.50	+5.49	+24.04
Narsimhapur District							
Decade variation	—	+3.22	—3.23	+2.01	+4.20	+1.23	+21.61
Cumulative variation	—	+3.22	—0.11	+1.89	+6.17	+7.48	+30.71

The closing decade of the last Century was perhaps the darkest period in the census history of the District when the population declined steeply by 14.5 per cent over 1891 and 7.1 per cent over 1872 Census figure. Repeated waves of epidemics during the decade took a heavy toll of population and it is estimated that deaths out-numbered births by 35,000. Average annual birth-rate during the decade was 33 per mille while the death-rate was 43.5 per mille. The decrease of population was nearly equally distributed between the two tahsils, Narsimhapur losing by 14 per cent and Gadarwara by 15 per cent.

The District is not open to considerable migration. Nearly 92 per cent of the inhabitants in the year 1901 were born in Narsimhapur; this being the highest proportion returned by any District in Jabalpur or Narmada Divisions, except Betul. A total of 31,600 persons, however, emigrated to other places, mostly within the Province, only 6,300 of these having gone beyond the Central Provinces. Migration from and to Jabalpur, Sagar, Seoni, Hoshangabad and Chhindwara was a significant fact. It is interesting to note that among migrants the number of females was comparatively more than males, a fact which outwardly appears to be a result of casual migration on account of marriages. However, this could also be the consequence of periodical migration of labourers from and to the contiguous districts for harvesting purposes.

The population of the District during the decade 1901-11 increased by 10,159 persons or only by 3.22 per cent as compared with the State increase of 15.30 per cent. The male population, increased by 4.5 per cent while the female by 1.9 per cent only. The growth was more in Gadarwara Tahsil,where it increased by 4.23 per cent, than in Narsimhapur where it increased by 2.11 per cent only. Comparatively, the birth-rate for the decade was lower in the District than that in any other district, except Hoshangabad in the Narmada Valley and the Plateau Division. The birth-rate (per mille of population) ranged between 29.19 to 50.98 while death-rate ranged between 28.49 and 55.34. The exceptionally unhealthy years with high mortality from fever and bowel complaints, supplemented by cholera and plague which bagged over 900 souls, were chiefly responsible for sub-normal growth. Russell in the earlier Gazetteer observed : "where the people have enough to live on, and where the prudential check arriving from a high standard of comforts have begun to operate"[1], it was little surprising that the heavy losses of population in the earlier decade could not be recouped till 1911. Apart from these the District also lost about five thousand in migration during the decade. About 92.63 per cent of population was District-born and the rest of it was immigrant population numbering 24,000 persons. The pattern of migration largely retained its bias for the contiguous districts within the Province. viz., Jabalpur, Hoshangabad, Sagar, Chhindwara, etc. United Provinces and the Central India Agency States in India, and British districts beyond it were the important sources of immigration from beyond the Province. The immigration from United Provinces and the Central India Agency was mostly of labourers,including the *Chaitharas* or wheat-harvesters and contractors in road construction and railway and irrigation works, which were of temporary nature. Majority of emigration was to other districts of the Province, especially, with contiguous tracts, stated earlier. Of the 29,000 emigrants, as many as 25,753 emigrated to other districts of the Province.

The decade of 1911-21 was again not favourable to the growth of population which declined by 3.23 per cent in 1921 as compared to the decline of 1.38 per cent in the State as a whole. The decline was more in case of female population (4.31 per cent) than in male population (1.94 per cent). Gadarwara Tahsil showed a decline of 5.31 per cent in population while in Narsimhapur Tahsil it decreased only by 0.89 per cent. The twin factors, viz., influenza epidemic of 1918 which came in two waves, and famine or scarcity conditions in the closing years were mainly responsible for a sharp increase in death-rate. It would be interesting to note an account of the influenza contained in 1921 Census Report : 'A fulminating epidemic such as this one is altogether without parallel in the records of the Province. It appeared in two waves .... The second wave, however, which started late in September struck the Province with lightening suddenness and violence spreading rapidly and leaving behind it a

1. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 45.

melancholy wake of decimated villages and destitute orphans."[1] The loss would have been even greater but for the fact that during this decade the District gained about 7,000 persons in immigration. Total number of immigrants was about 30 thousand and of emigrants about 23 thousand. The pattern of migration still remained undisturbed and contiguous tracts still accounted for the majority of migrants from and to the District. The predominance of females among these migrants still pointed to the casual and periodic nature of migration for harvesting and marriage purposes. While immigration was mostly from Jabalpur and Seoni, the emigration was prominently with Central India Agency States, apart from Hoshangabad and Jabalpur.

The decade 1921-31 which raised the population of the State as a whole by 11.4 per cent saw Narsimhapur District population rising by a paltry 2.0 per cent. The male and female population increased by 2.07 per cent and 1.94 per cent, respectively. Increase in Narsimhapur Tahsil was 3.2 per cent, while in Gadarwara Tahsil it was a meagre 0.87 per cent. Though the cholera epidemic in 1921 and 1928 took a sizeable toll of life in the District, yet that hardly accounts for the low growth. Apart from the various other causes responsible for the low growth, Shoobert in 1931 Census observed : "It seems, therefore, that in this case nature has adjusted the population to suit the resources of the District."[2] The birth and death-rate, respectively, was 42 and 37 "number per cent of population" of 1921. Owing to the lack of emigration figures it is difficult to assess the effect of emigration on the District population during this decade. However, 24,610 or 7.65 per cent of the District population was born beyond the District, of which, other districts of Central Provinces and Berar sent about 20,000 persons. Bhopal, Rewa, and Indore among the Central India Agency States were prominent in sending persons to Narsimhapur District.

The following decade, 1931-41 opened amidst economic depression and ended at the height of the Second World War. The District population increased by 13,510 or 4·2 per cent as against the State growth of 12.34 per cent. The male population showed a faster rate of growth, viz., 5.23 per cent than female population which increased only by 3.16 per cent. The extent of increase in Narsimhapur and Gadarwara tahsils was 3.29 and 4.97 per cent, respectively. The low growth of population during the decade cannot adequately be explained.

The decade that followed, viz., 1941-51, witnessed an exceptionally low growth of 1.23 per cent in the District population as against the State increase of 8.7 per cent. This was the lowest in the Narmada Valley and the Satpura Plateau Divisons. The rise in the male population was to the tune of 1.4 per

1. Census of India, 1921, Central Provinces and Berar, pt. I, p. 5.

2. Ibid, 1931, pt. I, p. 35.

cent while female population increased by 1.04 per cent. Narsimhapur Tahsil increased by 1.52 per cent, while in Gadarwara the increase was of 0.95 per cent. An identical case of low growth rate is of Hoshangabad of which Narsimhapur was a part then. Census Superintendent in 1951 ascribed it to the fact that : "in the Hoshangabad District the population tends to be constant for the simple reason that all the normally available culturable land is under the plough and there are no heavy industries to absorb more men."[1]

But the phenomenal increase of 21.61 per cent in the District in 1961 knocked the bottom out of the foregoing arguments. Males increased by 22.6 per cent and females by 20.57 per cent. Ths tahsil components of Narsimhapur increased by 25.9 per cent and Gadarwara by 17.57 per cent. Enumerating the probable reasons for this phenomenal increase, the Census of 1961 observed that lesser number of deaths owing to the expansion of medical services and execution of public health programmes, and greater productivity from available land as a result of improvement in agricultural technique,[2] are at the root. The District population of 4,12,406 included 36,320 or 8.8 per cent immigrant population, of whom about 32,800 immigrants came from other districts of Madhya Pradesh, mostly from contiguous districts. From Jabalpur and Hoshangabad, being the chief of them, 7,127 and 6,496 persons, respectively immigrated to this District. The main feature of extra-provincial immigration was a strong link with Uttar Pradesh which sent out majority of these to Narsimhapur. Out of about a thousand immigrants from other countries, 960 came from Pakistan alone. The birth-rate calculated for the year 1960 on the basis of 1961 Census population of the District was 47 per mille and death-rate 23 per mille, which works out to 2.4 per cent per annum as a rate of natural increase.

Rural-Urban Population

According to 1961 Census, Narsimhapur District has four towns, one in Gadarwara and three in Narsimhapur tahsils, and 993 inhabited villages (82 uninhabited). The urban area extending over 19.3 sq.miles (50.00 sq.kms.) has 48,996 persons while the rural area extending over 1,962.1 sq. miles (5,081.7 sq.kms.) has a population of 3,63,410 persons. The density of population in rural and urban areas thus, was 185 and 2,537 persons, respectively. The tahsil break-up of rural—urban population is given in the inset below :—

Tahsil	No. of Villages		No. of	Population		
	Inhabited	Un-inhabited	Towns	Rural	Urban	Total
Narsimhapur	549	50	3	1,73,183	34,300	2,07,483
Gadarwara	444	32	1	1,90,227	14,696	2,04,923
Narsimhapur District	993	82	4	3,63,410	48,996	4,12,406

1. Census of India, 1951, Madhya Pradesh, pt. I-A, p. 18.
2. Narsimhapur District Census Hand Book, 1961, p. XLIV.

About 466 or 41 per cent of the villages in the District belong to the category of "small" villages (below 500 population), with high frequency of "very small" (below 200) villages in Narsimhapur Tahsil. It is because of higher tribal population in this Tahsil (Narsimhapur Tahsil has 62.7 per cent of the tribal population of the District). About 170 or 17 per cent of the villages were of "medium size" (between 500 to 999 persons), with about equal frequency in both the tahsils. "Big villages," numbering 45, form 6 per cent of the total villages, while "very big" (2,000 to 4.999 persons) numbering 12, constitute only one per cent of all the villages. Thus, Narsimhapur has a preponderance of "very small" villages; Gadarwara showed preponderance of "big villages". "Very small" villages accounted for one-tenth of the population; while "big" and "very big" villages accommodated only one-fourth of the population. Highest portion of the population (64 per cent) live in "small" and "medium sized" villages.

Since 1901 the urban population increased from 23,647 to 48,996 persons in 1961, while rural population increased from 2,91,871 to 3,63,410 during the same period. The distribution of population in rural and urban break-up, and its variation since 1901 is given in Table as under :—

Year	Urban			Rural		
	Population	Percentage to Total Population	Percentage Variation	Population	Percentage to Total Population	Percentage Variation
1901	23,647	7.5	...	2,91,871	92.5	...
1911	18,749	5.8	—20.7	3,06,928	94.2	+5.16
1921	22,214	7.0	+18.5	2,92,948	93.0	—4.55
1931	23,825	7.4	+7.8	2,97,656	92.6	+1.61
1941	30,507	9.1	+28.0	3,04,484	90.9	+2.19
1951	37,136	10.1	+21.7	3,01,974	89.9	—0.82
1961	48,996	11.9	+31.9	3,63,410	88.1	+20.34

Since 1901, the urban population increased much faster than the rural. While the former increased by 107.2 per cent the latter increased by 24.5 per cent only. During the last three decades there has been a phenomenal increase in the urban population. Notwithstanding this rise, the District continues to be predominantly rural, the rural-urban ratio in 1961 being 22 : 3.

Of the four towns stated earlier, Gadarwara, Narsimhapur and Chhota-Chhindwara (Gotegaon) have had continued existence as towns since 1901. The fourth town, Kareli, was added in 1941 Census. The Census of 1961 classified Gadarwara and Narsimhapur as class IV towns, while the rest as class V towns.

Variation of population in these towns, since 1901, is given in the Table below:—

Year	Narsimhapur		Gadarwara		Kareli		Chhota-Chhindwara	
	Persons	Percentage Variation	Persons	Percentage Variation	Persons	Percentage Variation	Persons	Percentage Variation
1901	11,233	—	8,198	—	—	—	4,216	—
1911	10,630	—5.4	4,715	—42.5	—	—	3,404	—19.3
1921	9,839	—7.4	8,539	+81.1	—	—	3,836	+12.7
1931	11,077	+12.6	9,077	+6.3	—	—	3,671	—4.3
1941	12,908	+16.5	10,146	+11.8	2,992	—	4,461	+21.5
1951	14,316	+10.9	12,744	+25.6	4,413	+47.5	5,663	+26.9
1961	17,940	+25.3	14,696	+15.3	8,603	+94.9	7,757	+37.0

The growth of population during these 60 years is comparatively much higher in Chhota-Chhindwara than in Gadarwara and Narsimhapur towns. The population increased by 79.2 per cent in Gadarwara, 51.6 per cent in Narsimhapur, and 83.9 per cent in Chhota-Chhindwara.

Displaced Persons

Consequent upon the partition of the Country in 1947 huge exodus of population occurred in the subsequent years of the decade. Narsimhapur also had its share of 1,188 displaced persons out of which 635 were males and 533 females. A majority of persons settled in the urban areas of Narsimhapur District. Mostly, they came from Districts of West Pakistan. The Table below presents their distribution according to livelihood pattern :—

Tahsil	All Agricultural Classes		Non-Agricultural Classes: Production other than Cultivation		Commerce		Transport		Other Services and Miscellaneous Sources		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Narsimhapur	8	8	83	77	311	273	46	40	53	47	501	445
Urban	8	8	83	77	305	271	46	40	53	47	495	443
Rural	--	--	—	—	6	2	—	—	—	—	6	2
Gadarwara	2	1	9	9	113	92	1	2	9	4	134	108
Urban	2	1	9	9	103	88	—	—	4	4	118	102
Rural	--	--	—	—	10	4	1	2	5	0	16	6
Narsimhapur District	10	9	92	86	424	365	47	42	62	51	635	553

Out of the total population only 30 persons sought their livelihood in the rural areas. Though settling in rural tract, none of these adopted agriculture for subsistence or affluence. Following non-agricultural pursuits, they adopted 'commerce' and 'production other than cultivation' as the principal means of livelihood. As such they mainly remained concentrated in the urban areas of Narsimhapur Tahsil.

LANGUAGE

As many as 27 speeches in the District have been returned as mother-tongues in 1961 Census. In comparison with the language returns of other districts, it is not at all a formidable number, and one should not be led away with the idea that the District is a veritable *babel* of tongues. The Table below shows the distribution of population according to prominent mother-d tongues in the District :—

Mother-tongue	Population	Percentage to Total Population
Hindi	4,07,504	98.81
Urdu	1,604	00.39
Sindhi	996	00.24
Marathi	841	00.20
[illegible]	631	00.15

Hindi is the mother-tongue of the majority of the population. As many as 98.8 per cent of the population speak Hindi. Thus the remaining 26 speeches together, account for only one per cent of the population. Urdu is the mother-tongue of the next most numerous group, and accounts for about 0 4 per cent of the District population. Sindhi, Punjabi, Marathi, the former two largely the mother-tongues of immigrant displaced persons, have more than 500 but less than 1,000 speakers each. Gujarati and Marwari are spoken by 162 and 141 speakers, respectively. The five mother-tongues, together, account for about 0.7 per cent of speakers. Besides, 90 persons are returned as having Sanskrit as their mother-tongue. All these persons are the inhabitants of the rural areas.

The speakers of Urdu, Sindhi, and Punjabi are almost entirely concentrated in urban areas. A significant development noted in the Census of 1961 is complete linguistic assimilation of tribals in the District. Gond and other tribes have almost completely lost their original mother-tongues. Hindi of rural areas is akin to Bundeli form of Hindi, which is commonly spoken. It differs from Urdu in certain points of inflection. "In Bundeli the long *a* forming the termination of substantives and adjectives is changed into *o* as *ghoro* for *ghora*, *baro gattho laiyo* for *bara gattha lana*. The change is also made in the participial form of verbs as *khao* for *khaya*. The *ko* of the oblique case is also changed to *e* as *tum bazare gaye hate* for *tum bazar ko gaye the*. If the root of a verb ends in long *a* it is changed into *ai* to form the verbal noun as *khaibo* for *khana*. In the future tense the termination *ga* is not used in Bundeli, and is replaced by the Gujarati termination *shai* altered into *hai* as *pani baras hai* for *pani barsega*. The past tense of the substantive verb *tha/the* is changed to *hato*, *hate*, and the long *a* in the termination of the present participle is shortened, as for instance,

ghora daurta tha would become *ghoro daurat hato.* In Bundeli as in Urdu the particle *ne* is added to the nominative in the past tense of transitive verbs, and in this respect Bundeli differs from Eastern Hindi which omits the particle. In Bundeli there is a tendency to omit the aspirate except when it is the initial letter; thus *pahila* (first) would become *paila*, *bahira* (deaf) *baira*, *pahalwan* (wrestler) *pailwan*, and so no. This peculiarity is not so much marked in the Narsinghpur dialect as in that of Saugor and Damoh. The Narsinghpur Bundeli has some peculiarities which enable a speaker of it to be easily distinguished. Thus a resident of Saugor would say *u* for *wah* (he), while one of Narsinghpur would say *ba*; in Narsinghpur *i* (this) is called *ja*, *man* (*wahan*, there) is *bhan*, *itain* (*yahan*, here) is *jhain*, *kabaun*, (*kabhi*, sometimes) is *kabhaun*, and so on. The use of these common words at once identifies a Narsinghpur man. A number of special dialects also exist in Narsinghpur. The Kirs, a cultivating caste living in the west of the District who grow vegetables, speak a form of Marwari. The Katias have a dialect in which Marathi is mixed with Bundeli, and the Bharias, another corrupt dialect."[1]

RELIGION AND CASTE

Hindus, as has already been said, are predominant in the District, constituting about 96.2 per cent of the District population according to 1961 Census. In the rural areas they predominate, accounting for 97.6 per cent of the rural population. In the rest of 3.8 per cent, followers of Islam accounted for 2.68 per cent, and as such, formed next important group. In the Census of 1961 and 1941 the population of Muslims was 11,072 and 12,219, respectively. The fall in population of Muslims is mainly due to the partition of the Country, and consequent migration to Pakistan. In numerical importance the place of Jainism is third, claiming 3,909 followers. Other faiths professed by people in the District are Sikhism, Christianity, Zorastrianism and Satnami, professed by 436, 221, 61 and 57 persons, respectively. Satnami sect appears to be a new addition as it is not reported in the 1951 Census. However, the probability could be that these people might have been included amongst Hindus. The followers of this religion are mostly Chamars who in an attempt to emancipate themselves have brought out a religion of their own which has its root in the Chhattisgarh plains.

Hinduism, the dominant religion of the District, in rural areas has been cultured by the tribal faith of the surrounding districts. The presence of Bara Deo, Dulha Deo, Khair Mata, Mai, etc., in the pantheon of Hindus, the identification of Bara Deo, the god of Gonds, with Mahadeo of Hindus, the worship of Rama, Krishna, Hanuman, etc., by the tribals are the evidence of the fact. Catholic nature of Hinduism has made the process of acculturation

1. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 48.

easy and as a result the precepts of tribal faith findplace in the Hinduism. The process of acculturation is not of recent origin. Shoobert in 1931 Census observed : "The results of the contact of Hinduism with the animistic beliefs of the aboriginal tribes were in fact very apparent even in the time of Forsyth, who has dealt at some length on the subject in "*The Highlands of Central India,*" a book written of the period between 1860 and 1870."[1] With regard to the impact af tribal faith it would also be interesting to read a passage quoted from Central Provinces Gazetteer. "The Hinduism of the Central Provinces is largely tinctured by nature and animal worship and by the veneration of deified human beings. Even in the more advanced districts there are usually a number of village gods, for the worship of whom a special priest belonging to the primitive tribe called Bhumka or Baiga is supported by contributions from the villages."[2] Animism similarly as a result of contact with Hinduism has transformed itself to Hinduism. "It is true that when members of these tribes settle in plains among the Hindu community they do become Hinduized. The natural desire to escape the taint of barbarism and to raise themselves in the social scale forces them to claim equal status with their Hindu neighbours, and the condition of recognition of this claim is the adoption of Hindu customs,"[3] Hinduism under such an interaction "has in fact been said to be passing through its fifth renaissance."[4]

The demarcation of lower ranks of Hinduism in the past, forming a major part of the population in the District has also to some extent accelarated the animistic traits to get into the fold of Hinduism.

Religious Beliefs

The religious beliefs transmitted from generation to generation continue even today among the people without reason and alterations. Belief in the transmigration of soul is widely prevalent, forming the edifice of the whole system of religious conceptions and dogmas. Devoutness and pious life with a desire for salvation will reduce the cycle of birth and death,and lead one to *vaikuntha* (heaven) is a general belief. Some people put a mark on the dead-body in the hope of identifying the dead in the subsequent new birth in the family as a projection of the belief in rebirth. One will harvest crop of one's action, if not in this life then certainly in the next life is a widely held belief.

Every Hindu has a desire to make a pilgrimage to places like Varanasi, *Triveni* at Prayag, Hardwar, Brindavan, etc., to atone for sins committed in the life, consciously or unconsciously, and make his way clear to the heaven. Though

1. Census of India, 1931, Central Provinces and Berar, pt. I, p. 324.
2. Ibid, (Quoted).
3. Ibid, p. 329.
4. Ibid, p. 327.

very few can fulfil this desire, yet opportunity is never lost to visit local places of pilgrimages like Barman and Jhount for the purpose. People have faith that sin could also be expiated by giving alms to Brahmins and *sadhus*. *Dan*, given on various religious occasions ensures a happy life. *Kanyadan* is esteemed high and ensures happiness in the life. *Kathas* and *kirtans* are organized quite frequently as a form of devotion to god and making it possible to lead a virtuous and pious life. *Satyanarain-ki-katha* is performed quite often. Reading of the *Ramayan* and the *Bhagwat* is in vogue in the villages, and the urban centres are having regular organisations engaged in conducting such racitations. It is a pious belief that such activities help in achieving desired ends. Brahmins are held in high esteem and are saluted with reverence—*paya lage panditji*—in the rural areas.

Superistition

Superistitions, handed down from generation to generation stem largely from fear of something unknown or mysterious. Many of these are connected with semi-religious nature, while others with purely ordinary occurrences in life. If a cat crosses a person's path from left to right it portends something bad, but if the same cat returns to the right from left, it is supposed to be good. Ill-luck could be fore-stalled by going a few steps back or by waiting a few minutes on the spot. The barking of a dog at the commencement of a journey is ominous and brings danger to the traveller. The misfortune attending on the presence of the feline can be warded off by presenting an image of a cat made of silver or gold to a religious person or by giving feast to the caste people. Mating of crow, if seen, brings bad luck to the person. Meeting a Brahmin or a *sadhu*, or pitcher filled with water is considered auspicious. On the other hand, to come across empty pitcher or a Teli is supposed to be a bad omen. Meeting one-eyed man at the commencement of a journey brings ill-luck to the traveller. A funeral procession, or a cow feeding the calf in front of a person on journey brings good luck. If one sees a shooting star in the sky, it presages the death of one of his relations. A pregnant woman should not see the sun or moon during eclipse. If she does, it is believed that she would give birth to a deformed and defective child. Presence of a widow at the time of marriage portends bad luck to the married couple. No work of any kind should be undertaken if there is a sneeze at the start of the work. In such cases work should be postponed at least for sometime. However, two or more sneezes, coming in succession, are auspicious.

Castes and Tribes

The Hindu community, as is known, consists of various castes and sub-castes. Since caste-wise compilation of population statistics was dispensed with after 1931 Census, one has to depend on the 1931 Census data for assessing the caste structure, which should give fairly good approximation of the constituent castes

and sub-castes of Hindu population. The Table below gives the numerical importance of the castes. Minor castes have been excluded.

Castes/Tribes	Population (1931)	Castes/Tribes	Population (1931)
Gonds (Hindu)	2,166	Gonds (Tribal)	40,078
Lodhi	29,265	Brahmin	22,396
Ahir	21,443	Chamar	19,081
Mehra	17,949	Dheemer	13,939
Rajput	12,343	Teli	7,329
Bani	6,220	Nai	6,113
Barahi	5,377	Dhanuk	5,186

The Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe-wise population statistics are available as per 1961 Census which may be seen in Appendix A. Of the 32 Scheduled Tribes in Narimhapur, only 13 have been returned in 1961 Census which, together, account for 48,588 or 12.2 per cent of population, Gadarwara accounting for 9.2 per cent, while Narsimhapur 15.3 per cent of tribal population. Gonds alone constitute 42,788 or 87.2 per cent, Bharia-Bhumia 4.1 per cent, Oraon 3.2 per cent, Pardhan, Pathari and Saroti 2.8 per cent and Kol about 2.5 per cent of the tribal population. Gonds being numerically important, however, deserve fuller treatment.

Gond

The earlier classification of Gonds into Hindus and tribals on the basis of professing faith has been dispensed with in 1951 and 1961 Censuses. In Narsimhapur they have completely transformed themselves to perfect Hindus. With this social and psychological change they now hesitate to call themselves *Adivasi*, particularly in the field of social relationships.

The word 'Gond or Gund' in the opinion of Hislop, one of the best authorities on the tribes, is a form of 'Kondi' or 'Kund', the 'k' and the 'g' being inter-changeable, and the word itself is probably connected with *Konds*, the Telugu word for mountain. Thus, the term Gond would signify, etymologically people of hills, a designation very suitable to them.

Narsimhapur was not the true country of Gonds. "Towards the close of the 15th century Sangram Sa, the 47th prince of the Gond Rajput dynasty of of Garha Mandla, hitherto a petty local principality, issued on a career of conquest from Mandla highlands and succeeded in adding to his dominions 52 *garahs* or districts comprising Saugor, Damoh and possibly Bhopal, the Nerbudda valley and parts of the Satpura plateau......... But owing to its containing within its limits the castle of Chauragarh, Narsinghpur was the scene of several of the most important crises in the fortunes of Mandla kings."[1]

1. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 21.

De Brett described : "The Gonds are the poorest community; their houses, clothes and furniture are of insignificant value. In many cases they have only a small garden plot for spade cultivation, and as a rule they can only get one crop out of the ground, the soil being too poor to grow rabi crops."[1] But now the conditions both in economic and social fields have changed a lot and they are no longer what De Brett had described though they may be poor in comparision to other cultivating castes. Their clothes, houses and furniture are in no way inferior as compared to those of other rural communities. Gonds in general are rarely addressed as Gonds but always as Thakurs, i. e., a title of Rajputs.

There are two main endogamous groups of Gonds in Narsimhapur, viz., Raj Gonds and the Dhur Gonds. Raj Gonds even now claim themselves to be aristocrats, while Dhur Gonds are considered plebeians. Raj Gonds are the highest of the clans among Gonds and the title is borne by most of the noble and governing houses. They wear sacred thread. Raj Gonds as a whole comprise many exogamous groups, but those, commonly found in the District are Marskola said to be worshipping seven minor deities; Atram, Nareta, Salam, Torial, worship six minor deities; and Dhurwe, Kumra, Soiyam worship five minor deities. There may be more exogamous groups in the District but those stated above are in prominence. Similarly, commonly found exogamous sub-groups of the clan Dhur Gonds, are Merabi, Markam, Sriam, Tekam, Marskola, Kariyarn and Kumbars. Gonds of these sub-groups are also termed as "Rawanbansi" being taken as descendents of Rawan, the demon king.

Because of complete identification with local Hindu populace, their customs and manners do not differ substantially from those of the Hindus, and hence need no mention. The only difference, typical of them is in the matter of worshipping deities. Besides worshipping the village gods of the Hindus, the Gonds worship their own God, Bara Deo who is installed either in one of the corners of the house or in the field outside the home under the *saj* tree. Bara Deo, alongwith a few minor deities of Gonds, is not revered by other castes. Both sections of the Gonds are well-versed in the agricultural practices and some of them own big well-managed estates.

Lodhi

Lodhis, constituting about 12 per cent of the population in 1931, stand next to Gonds in numerical importance. Lodhis alongwith Brahmins are the big landlords and are one of the best cultivating castes. For this reason probably they prefer to be addressed as "Patel", i. e., a cultivator. "The Lodhis are immigrants from the United Provinces, in whose Gazetteers it is stated that

1. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1884-94, p. 26.

they belonged originally to the Ludhiana District and took their name from it. Their proper designation is Lodha, but it has become corrupted to Lodhi in the Central Provinces."[1] There are several exogamous sub-groups of the caste of which Mahdele, Marwasia, Bhadoria are chiefly found in Narsimhapur. The endogamous groups found in the District are Mahalodhi, Jaria, Khakarha, Jesari, Onto, Singrore and Lodha. Most of these names, as it appears, are the names of territories. Mahdeles are the highest clan of the locality. The social customs and manners of Lodhis are in no way different from those of the other Hindu castes. Lodhis in general permit widow marriage by way of *kari*. With regard to their social status they certainly enjoy a high position, mainly because of their being landlords and ruling chiefs.

Brahmin

Constituting about nine per cent of the District population in the 1931 Census, Brahmins who immigrated from the Northern India, stood third in numerical importance. Two sections of them—Kanyakubjas and Sanadhyas are prominent groups which are endogamous. Besides these, Bhagora, and Ahiwasis are also found in small numbers. Maharashtrian, and Marwari Brahmins also figure in the population of the District.

Ahir

Ahir is another caste of numerical importance in the District. Their principal endogamous sub-castes in Narsimhapur are Kabjea, Korna, Jyhotia Bharotia, Kanpa, Shadiya Bavania, Dhakakosi. Jyhotia Ahir is the highest sub-caste deriving the name from Jajhoti, the classical term for Bundelkhand. A majority of the Ahirs have abandoned the caste occupation of cattle-tending and have taken to cultivation. Ahirs have a special deity—Mal Baba, who is enshrined in the form of a stone placed over a raised platform, generally at the outskirts of the village. This platform is known as *Malbaba-ka-Chabutara*. Diwali is a festival of great singificance to them in which they worship *Gobardhan*, and dance, dressed in fantastic clothes made out of the nets, decorated with *cowries*, and the head decorated with peacock feathers.

Chamar and Mahra

Most numerous Scheduled Caste of Chamars has increased in population from 5.9 per cent in 1931 to 6.2 per cent in 1961. Mahra or Mehra and Chamar are the two castes coming from lower strata of Hindu caste-hierarchy, but they have importance in the composition of population from the point of view of their numbers. Mahras, though a lower caste, are not considered untouchables, and are usually employed as Kotwars or the Village Watchmen. To work as tenants, and also to cultivate their little plots of land, are the means of livelihood to them. A few of them, even now, are having weaving as a sec-

1. R.V. Russell and Hiralal, The Tribes and Castes of The Central Provinces, Vol.IV, p. 11-2

ondary occupation. Chamars in the District have many sub-groups of which Ladia, Eharwar, Dhonbar and Dhulbaria are prominent. These groups are endogamous and therefore, marry among themselves. Ladias work in the manufacture of bricks and as helpers in masonry work. Eharwars work in leather, Dhonbars trade in livestock, particularly in cows and buffaloes. Dhulbarias also work in leather, but not in the preparation of hides. They manufacture leather goods, especially shoes; their women work as mid-wives. They also beat drums on ceremonial occasions, and that is why they are known as Dhulbaria. Apart from these occupations Chamars, in general, are engaged in cultivation in which a majority are labourers.

Bania

Russell and Hiralal regarded Bania as a distinct caste rather than as an occupational term. But the so-called sub-castes of Bania, viz., Parwar, Oswal, Nema, etc., profess different religious faiths. Parwars, and some Agarwals profess faith in Digambar sect of Jainism while Oswals follow the Swetambar sect. Similarly, some of the Agarwals call themselves Hindus, e.g., Maheshwari Banias or Vaishnavas. As such, to regard Bania as a distinct caste is controvertial. They form an occupational group. The name Bania is derived from the Sanskrit word "Vanij", i.e., a merchant. In the year 1931 they numbered 8,864 persons out of whom 2,654 were returned as Jains while the rest as Hindus. Banias are landlords but they are also engaged in various trades. The principal endogamous groups of Banias, following Jainism are Parwar and Oswal; while amongst Hindus are Nema, Agarwal and Gahoi. Agarwals wear the sacred thread. Amongst Nemas, the prominently found sub-groups in the District are the *dasa* and *beesa*. Other sub-castes of Nema, like Chaimuthia and Padbichia are altogether absent. The legend popular among the people about the division of the caste is that once a dispute arose in the temple of Indrani Devi in Gujarat. One party to the dispute consisted of ten persons and the other of twenty, and since then the two sects are known as *desa* and *beesa*. Originally, Nemas came to the District from Rajasthan. They generally profess Hindu religion but a few also follow Jainism. Origin of Nemas, as Hiralal and Russell say is obscure. However, the legend goes: "when Parasurama was slaying the Kshatriyas, fourteen young Rajput princes, who at the time were studying religion with their family priests, were saved by the latter on renouncing their Kshatriya status and declaring themselves to be Vaishyas." These were the ancestors of the "fourteen *gotras* of the Nema sub-caste, but the *gotras* actually bear the names of the fourteen *Rishis* or saints who saved their lives."[1]

Oswal amongst Banias is an important caste from Gadarwara Tahsil of the District. The name Oswal is derived from the town of 'Osia' or 'Osnagar' in Marwar.[2] Oswals generally profess Jainism but Maheshwaris profess Hindu religion. Oswals like Agarwals or Nema are also divided into two sects, i.e., *dasa* -

1. Ibid, Vol. II, p. 154.
2. Ibid, p. 155.

and *beesa*. There is also another sect as *pacha*. Marriages between *dasa* and *beesa* are not generally performed. They have 84 exogamous groups. Like Hindus, the marriage is performed by walking round the sacred fire, and they observe most of the rites of other Hindu castes.

Parwars form a prominent group among Banias of the District. They have 12 exogamous groups. They belong to the Digambar sect and worship Tirthankar, but they also follow some Hindu religious practices. Brahmins are consulted by them for the performance of various religous rites of Hindus.

Rajput

Rajputs in 1931 numbered 12,343. Alongwith others, Rajput also form an important caste in the District. There are four major septs of Rajputs in prominence. Hiralal and Russell have described Bais as one of the 36 royal races.[1] Chauhans are said to be the last of the *agnikula* or fireborn clan, and as Colonel Tod has said, Chauhan was the most valiant of the *agnikula*. Like the other *agnikula* clans, the Chauhans are considered to have sprung from the Gurjara or white Hun invaders of the fifth and sixth centuries. However, the authority of this statement is disputed.[2] Chauhans are ranked as one of the highest Rajput clans. In Narsimhapur they generally marry among themselves. Their exogamous sections are termed on the basis of territorial affinity. Widow marriage among them is forbidden.

Like Chauhans, Parihar Rajput clan is also said to have originated from Gurjara invaders in the fifth and sixth centuries. Rathor Rajputs are also one of the most famous clans. Their origin is certain though various theories have been advocated. Apart from these few major septs, Gorais and Raghuvansis are also found in the District. Gorais permit widow marriage while some sections among Raghuvansis prohibit it.

Dhimar

Dhimar are water-carriers and growers of water-nut and melon, apart from being domestic servants. Water from the hands of Dhimar is generally acceptable to all, including Brahmins. These traditional palanquin-bearers of the past are sub-divided in a number of occupational groups, viz., Singaria-water-nut growers, Jhingas—prawn catchers and Bansias the fish-catchers.

Jat

Jats are immigrants from Dholpur and Bharatpur and are good cultivators. Some of them own big, well managed farms. Rao Jagannath was said to be the first Jat immigrant who built the temple of Narsinghaji which gives the town its name.

1. Ibid, Vol. IV, p. 436.
2. Ibid, p. 444.

Kaonra

This caste is typical of Narsimhapur, and is concentrated in Gadarwara Tahsil. Kaonras are said to be a branch of Korwa tribe of Bilaspur, though people of this caste call themselves Rajputs and claim descent from Kourawas of the Mahabharat. They are cultivators and cultivating labourers.

Other Castes

Apart from those mentioned above, ten castes have been scheduled in this District constituting about 7.9 per cent of the District population. Of these four castes, viz., Chamar (25,983), Basor (4,042). Mehtar (1,842) and Bahna (468) are important numerically. Mehras are, however, a conspicuous omission in the Schedule. Others are Balahi, Dom, Ganda, Khatik, Mang, and Sansi. Of the non-Scheduled castes important are Darzi, Gujar, Kirar, Katia, Kurmi and Sonar.

Deities

The pantheon of the District contains a number of godlings of both tribal and Hindu origin. Apart from the images of Maha Deo, Rama, Krishna and Hanuman, the popular deities of Hindus are Kher Mai, Dulha Deo, and Hardaul who are worshipped with equal reverence. Kher Mai is considered to be an incarnation of Devi and is the goddess of the earth or the village. She is considered to be protecting the village from the ravages of disease. As a protector, she is usually installed at the out-skirts of the village, sometimes in a hut or on a platform under the shade of a tree. Kher Mai, though worshipped every day by a person appointed for the purpose, is given special worship by all on Nao Durga or in Chaitra and Kunwar. On the outbreak of epidemics the village is bounded, i. e, protected by taking a cock (or goat) in hand and sprinkling *gur* (molasses) - water in a continuous stream around the village. Previously they used to take liquor in place of *gur* water. The cock or the goat is then sacrificed on the altar of Kher Mai. This rite is known as *gaon-ko-bandhna*. In some villages Kher Mai is also known as Khera Pati. Dulha-Deo is another favourite godling who is worshipped, especially at the time of weddings. As the legend goes, he was a young bridegroom who was carried away by the tiger on his way to wedding. Dulha Deo is usually installed on a platform in the east of the village. Hardaul is chiefly revered by women at the time of wedding, and in the month of Baisakh (April-May). Hardaul is usually installed on a platform outside the village and is decorated with flags. Mal Baba an important god, generally installed on a platform at the out-skirts, is the god of Ahirs who offer worship particularly on Gobardhan Puja. Bara Deo is the god of Gonds who is revered by them. The eldest member of the family would keep this god on a platform at one

corner of the house which is considered pure and very sacred. It is the collection of a few or just one small stone round in shape, kept in a screen, *chika* or *sika*. Other members of the main family, if living separately, shall not install Bara Deo upon a platform in the house but in the field or in the court-yard of the house. Bara Deo is usually identified with Mahadeo, the God of Hindus.

Muslims

The Muslims who numbered 11,022 or 2.68 per cent of the District population in 1961, formed second largest religious group. They have no castes in the real sense of the term but they are divided into caste-like classes and sub-classes. Their two main sections are called Shias and Sunnis.

Muslims can take as many as four wives, but in general this is rarely practised, and monogamy is the rule. The marriage rites amongst them are very simple. The betrothal or *magni* is the settlement of the match followed by *nikah*, the marriage ceremony. The *Qazi*, or the high-priest obtains the consent of the couple and the ceremony is over. The consideration for the contract is *mehr* (alimony) which is paid by the bridegroom to the bride on demand.

Jains

Those who profess Jainism form the third largest religious group in the District populace. In 1961, the Jain population numbered 3,909. Two important sects among the Jains are Digambaras and Swetambaras. The former worship sky-clad image of Tirthankars. The Jains have twenty-four Tirthankars, the path-finders, who taught their religion. The Oswals and Parwars, who form important groups among the Banias, profess Jainism.

SOCIAL LIFE

Property and Inheritance

The control of the head of the family over the property, the nature of inheritance, the authority and the behaviour towards dependants; and the dependants' response to head are, as it were, the categorical evidence of the patriarchal family system in existence among all the castes of the District. The head of the family enjoying the sole right over the property and the members having the moral claim upon it during the life time of the head, indicates the siprit of joint family system. But the structure, particularly, the absence of bilateral relations in the families today, reflects the tendency towards the nuclear nature. Thus it would be consistent to say that the family today in the District possesses the spirit of joint-family but in structure it is nuclear. Families with bilateral extensions are very rare and are limited generally to the higher income groups.

The family, therefore, in general, mainly comprises the husband, wife, unmarried children and in a few cases married children also alongwith their respective families. Thus when the extension is only vertical the families are joint. It is observed that the married children hardly find it convenient to be with the parent's family for a long period of time and, therefore, soon disintegrate and form an independent family. The parents in such circumstances, generally set apart a portion of the property under moral obligation for the newly formed family. Individualism has become the slogan of the day. The traditional joint-family coming from the Vedic age had disappeared much earlier and a new concept of joint-family was there till recently, co-existent with the British rule. This type of joint family is also disintegrating, giving birth to the nuclear family.

With the advent of the British, the cultural patterns were transformed as a result of the new economic organizations, ideology, and the administrative system. Liberalism in the ideological domain attacked all privileges based on the birth and hence individuals gained importance. Equality in the social and political system further brought the individual to the fore-front, affecting the attitude of younger generation to a considerable extent; as a result, the partition of the family property has become the order of the day. The coparceners insist on the partition of the joint property. Property, therefore, is usually divided equally amongst the coparceners either during the life-time of the head or after his death. Any additional share to any members is not the rule. Coparceners usually consist of sons only. The head, however, in his life-time might grant a share to a person other than the coparceners. The Hindu Law of Inheritance (Amendment Act) of 1929 and later the Hindu Women's Right to Property Act of 1937 recognised women's interest in the family property. Accordingly, she can claim partition as the male member could. Similarly, the Act recognises the widow of the pre-deceased grandson and that of the pre-deceased great grandson as entitled to her husband's share in the family property. In case of Hindus, and those governed by the Hindu Law, succession is now being regulated by the Hindu Succession Act of 1956. These acts carried forward the disintegration of the joint-family.

Amongst Mohammedans the Islamic Law is followed and the property is usually divided amongst the children of the deceased. If the deceased has not paid the *mehr*, and had divorced the wife, the first claim on his property rests with the wife.

Transfer of property through will is rare, both amongst Hindus and Muslims.

Marriage and Morals

Hindu marriage aims at *dharma*, *praja* (progeny), and *rati* (pleasure). Amongst these, marriage as *dharma* is paramount followed by procreation and

pleasure. *Dharma* being supreme, marriage is desired for obtaining the fulfilment of one's religious duties. It is, thus, a sacrament and not a social contract. However, the gradual changes that are occurring are tending to undermine the spirit of traditional concept and the sanctity of marital relations. Yet, the married status, even now, remains to be acquired largely by the performance of certain rites prescribed by the *Smritis* and *Sutras*. Thus, *homa*, i. e., offerings in sacred fire, the *panigrahana* or taking the hand of the bride and *saptapadi*, the bride and the bridegroom taking seven circumambulations together, are the essentials in the performance of a marriage.

Monogamy is the rule but deviations by and large mainly from the point of view of begetting children or a male heir or for reasons of insanity, etc., cannot be ruled out. Cases, otherwise, are rare and are limited to economically well off persons. Muslims, of course, are permitted to practise polygamy to the limit of four wives by law. But in practice monogamy is much perferred. Polyandry is not known to the people of the District.

Marital relations are, as a rule, sought only within the bonds of the caste. Deviations, if any, are severely dealt with by the respective caste people. Thus, violation of caste-endogamy is never thought of. Many of the castes like Brahmin, Gond, Lodhi are further sub-divided in two or more sub-groups, in which cases sub-group endogamy is practised. Thus, a Raj Gond would marry with Raj Gond only and not with Pardhan or other sub-group. Similarly, a Saryuparin Brahmin would seek marriage alliance within his own group and never with Kanyakubja or other sub-group.

Marriage Rites

"To a Hindu marriage is the most important and most engrossing event of the life."[1] It is said to be irrevocable unless warranted by untoward circumstances. The *vivah* is performed only once in a life-time, unless otherwise compelled by the circumstances while *Karidhari* or *kari* is a local term adopted for insignificant ceremony of keeping a widow, divorced, or a separated person. It is generally resorted to for the sake of pleasure and is mostly practised amongst Kirars, Lodhis, Mehras, Chamars and sometimes amongst Rajputs.

Child marriage was the rule till recently in case of fairly good number of castes at the upper strata of the caste hierarchy. But now the age of marriage has increased slightly. In general, boys are married at the age of 18-20 years while the girls at 13-14. Amongst educated, the age increases by 4 to 5 years both in case of boys and the girls. Finding a suitable match for marriageable girl poses a problem, especially in the upper strata of the castes where the bridegrooms are at a premium. But in the other castes like Gonds, Chamars Mehras, Kirars, etc., it is the bride who is at a premium. As such, the marriage used to be performed at puberty. Recently, in emulation of higher castes and

1. A. Dubois, Hindu Manners, Customs and Ceremonies, p. 208.

in an attempt to elevate oneself in social esteem the age of marriage among the lower castes has come to be raised on par with the higher castes. Therefore, with an increase in marriageable age, the period between the marriage and *gouna*, effective marriage, has shortened considerably. In general the ceremonies of marriage are almost the same, except for certain variation amongst Maratha Brahmins. Gonds of the District have totally Hinduized themselves,and adopted almost the same ceremonies. Gonds like other minor castes, viz., Chamars, Mehras, etc., would not engage a Brahmin to conduct the marriage.

The settlement of marriage rests with parents and not with the prospective spouse among the Hindus, Muslims, Jains and tribals. The occasion also affords a man the opportunity of offering the *kanyadan*, an act of giving, by virtue of which a person enjoys a better status amongst the rural folk. Parents while selecting the mate keep in view the nature, social and material status of the boy/girl and also of the family. Amongst Brahmins, Kayasthas, Banias and Rajputs it is the girl's party which starts the negotiations. The traditional method of employing a barber to establish liaison between families continues to be observed with a slight difference, as the match is now subject to final approval of the parents. This is followed by a series of tardy processes like tallying of horoscopes of the boy and the girl by a Brahmin, the settlement of dowry or bride-price, etc. Amongst Gonds, Mehras, Chamars etc., where a Pandit is not engaged, there prevails an interesting method. A *kalash* (a metallic pot filled with water) is placed on a *chowk* with an oil-lamp over it containing two lighted wicks. The wicks are arranged in opposite direction. From the other two sides grains either of rice or wheat are dropped in succession, slowly in the oil of the lamp. If the front points of the first grain from both the sides touch each other the marriage is informally settled, otherwise the alliance is not cosidered at all. This rite is known as *varg-prit-milana.* To avoid frustration, particularly amongst Gonds,lost cases are sometimes referred through their caste priest—Bhumka to a man who gets possessed by the spirit. All possible requirements in such cases are fulfilled to appease the god before the alliance is finalized.

Phaldan or *oli bharna* symbolises the settlement of marriage and the end of negotiation among higher castes. This is also locally known as *taka rupiya ka veohar* among lower castes. The ceremony entails the presentation of a rupee and a piece of cloth with some fruit either in the *dona* (leaf-cup) or in the hands of the bride and the bridegroom. *Phaldan* might also comprise the presents much costlier. An auspicious date is fixed thereafter for marriage by the Pandit or by mutual consent. A few days before the marriage the *lagan*, alongwith presents, is sent to the groom's party which is a written programme of various marriage rites and also an invitation to the groom's party. On the appointed day *mandwa*, the covered marriage-pole, necessarily of *sal*, *umer* or

ganja wood, decorated with leaves of mango or *jamun* is erected. Underaųı *mandwa* is also erected a wooden pole known as *khamb*. The shape and size of the *khamb* erected at bridegroom's place differs from that at bride's place. This is followed by a series of minor rites and rituals which include *mangermati*, bringing of earth for the preparation of *chulha* and also *vedi* (altar), and anointing the groom and the bride with turmeric and oil, seven and five times, respectively. On the appointed day *barat*, the marriage-party, reaches the bride's village and is received at the outskirts in attendance of music and fireworks, and is lodged at a suitable place known as *janwasa*, or even under the shade of trees. The *barat* is normally received with honour and dignity at bride's place. After light entertainment, significantly termed as *pan-chowk*, the groom is offered *tika*. In some of the castes the groom would throw a bamboo fan over the *mandwa* at the bride's place, while in others he would throw it off. *Chadhava*, consisting of presenting the ornaments and clothes to the bride is a keenly awaited ceremony. This is followed by the principal marriage ceremony known as *kanyadan* and *saptpadi*, *bhanwar* or *pheras*. The *hom* is performed and the couple go round the sacred fire and the *khamb*, seven times, amidst the chanting of *mantras* by the Pandit. The marriage thereafter, cannot be revoked. Oaths are also administered by the priest to the bride and bridegroom binding them in an ideal marital relations. Thereafter, the couple is conducted for a *puja* of *Ishta Deota*, leading to the last ceremony of *bida*, the departure of bride with *barat* party. In the first instance bride returns after staying at bridegroom's house for a few days until *gouna* is performed. The period between marriage and *gouna* depends upon the family traditions. The new trend, stemming more from economic reasons apart from social, is the performance of this rite also alongwith *bida*.

The system of dowry is prevalent amongst all the communities, but in many castes, particularly those which are at the middle stratum of the caste hierarchy, the dowry is not paid as "dowry" but as gift on the occasion of various marriage rites. People in general are conscious of the growing evil, but at the same time find themselves swept by it when occasion comes up. In the lower strata of the caste-hierarchy, viz., Gonds, Chamars, Ahirs, Mehras, etc., the bride-price is paid for obtaining one. It is difficult to assess the limits of the dowry paid to the groom as it not only varies with castes but also with the financial status of the contracting parties.

Widow Marriage

Substantially a good number of castes practise widow-marriage. No elaborate rites are essential for a widow-marriage. One can adopt a widow as wife by observing a simple ceremony, locally known as *kari* or *karidhari*. It is common amongst Lodhi, Mehra, Chamar, Nai, Dhimar, Barhi, Lohar, Kumhar, Dhobi, i. e., the castes which are at the lower rung of the caste

hierarchy. In a simple ceremony the bridegroom offers the widow a few glass bangles, new clothes, vermilion and if possible ornaments also which she would wear and follow the new husband to his house. In addition, compensation, if demanded by the old husband, is also paid in cases of divorced or separated women. Widow-marriage amongst higher castes is strictly prohibited. Liverate, prevalent as a custom amongst any particular caste is not known. However, stray cases do happen, prominently among Chamars and Mehras.

The widows continue to be the object of sympathy. Denied of certain privileges, they generally drape themselves in white, and wear one or two silver bangles. Glass bangles, *bichhia, machli*, vermilion on the parting of hair, and on the forehead are taboos for them. Their presence on a few social and religious functions, specially *bhanwar* in the marriage, is still considered inauspicious.

Divorce

Social sanction by the caste Panchayats to the divorce cases is more important than legal sanction in the matter, particularly in rural areas. As such, no such cases were registered by the District authorities during the past few years. Divorce, as such, is looked down upon not merely by higher castes, but by the lower castes too, though the latter permit it freely. Among Chamars, Mehtars and Mehras, mere expression of the wish and leaving the husband's house may bring about divorce.

Marriage being revocable, divorce amongst Muslims is recognised by Muslim Law which in consequence entitles the wife to the payment of an alimony, depending upon the terms of the marriage contract.

Economic Dependence of Women

In the absence of precise information, whatever data are forthcoming on the subject from the Census of 1951 may be used to assess the extent of economic dependence of women-folk. About 59.2 per cent of the rural female population is constituted of 'non-earning dependants'. Of the rest, 10.3 per cent were 'self-supporting' and 30.5 'earning dependants'. It may, however, be interesting to analyse the extent of dependence in the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors of female population. While in the former about 52.5 per cent of the females were 'dependants', among the latter, as many as 65.4 per cent were enumerated as 'non-earning dependants'. As such, it may roughly be concluded that females in agricultural sector are less economically dependent than their counterparts in the non-agricultural sector of rural population.

Women at large do not present any significant change with regard to their position in the society. No doubt, with the development activities going

around, and the facilities available for emancipation, there is a slight change in the outlook, and women are receiving education to a comparatively greater degree. There does not appear to be any other apparent change. Virtue consisting in performing the socially approved duty, social disapproval of ambition and deviation in behaviour, emphasis on the conformity, obedience, self-control and harmony, and traditional training in the social relationship are still being expected of women.

Drinking and Gambling

A reference has been made to the drinking habit of the people under the caption of "food habits' of the people. Taking of alcoholic drinks occasionally is reflected in the cases registered under the Prohibition Act as given below :—

Year	No. of Cases Registered	Year	No. of Cases Registered
1951	21	1959	101
1952	39	1960	115
1953	33	1961	60
1954	60	1962	122
1955	83	1963	113
1956	49	1964	111
1957	95	1965	165
1958	78		

The figures above indicate that the tendency of taking drinks among the people, though occasional, is on the increase.

Gambling is usually indulged in by the people in the form of playing of cards. This, apart from pastime, brings easy money. The number of offences registered under the Gambling Act during 1951 to 1965 is given below :—

Year	No. of Offences Registered
1951	93
1952	78
1953	64
1954	85
1955	93
1956	69
1957	165
1958	75
1959	100
1960	87
1961	53
1962	78
1963	61
1964	82
1965	94

HOME LIFE

House

According to 1961 Census there are 81,993 occupied houses in the District, of these 72,786 are in the rural areas while the rest in urban areas.

Houses of the well-to-do cultivators are comparatively much better than the houses of small cultivators and the agricultural labourers. They are usually built in bricks and plastered with mud and in some cases with cement. At the entrance of such a house, a big door either opening in the front verandah or directly on the village road is provided. In most of the cases front-side is double storeyed with a verandah opening towards the village lane. A verandah on the inner-side, facing the *chowk* or the court-yard could also be found. In the inner-front or outer-verandah, usually a *takhat* or wooden dais is placed where the visitors sit and talk. On the sides of the front or side verandahs, usually, the milch cattle are kept, and if their number is large they are kept in the enclosed yard on the back side. The roofs are usually covered with country tiles but in some bigger villages English tiles could also be seen. Thatching the roofs with English tiles is getting popularity. Side verandahs are also used for providing protection to *bandas* constructed on them to store grains. *Bandas* are actually the pits with brick-line raised 3′ to 4′ above the ground. Grains are kept in the *banda* with another line of leaves on all sides and then covered with wheat-husk which is finally plastered with mud. These days people also spray some insecticide as additional measure of protection before sealing it. Floors are usually of mud, frequently cleaned with cowdung. Habitat of well-to-do-families and ex-*malguzars* are termed as *bakhar* which contains three to four living rooms, exclusive of verandahs on three sides. Habitations of other classe of people are built of mud, bricks and mud, raised inside the wooden framework erected on the ground, and covered with tiles supported by pulse-stalks. A few of the houses of middle class peasantry could also be seen with brick masonry, comprising two or three rooms with a verandah in front, and one side to be used as *sar*, cowshed. Very poor sections possess one room tenements with either a small courtyard in front or a verandah which is covered with pulse-stalk. Courtyards are usually fenced with pulse-stalk or with thorns. As a consequence of mass propaganda, and subsidy granted for the construction of water-seal latrine by the Development Blocks some of the villages are having these latrines and bathrooms. However, people fence a small space either in the corner of the front courtyard or in the back to use it as bathroom-cum-urinal.

The division of the family and also the rigid caste attachment is responsible for the caste-wise cluster of houses in the villages. However, stray houses of other castes in cluster of one particular caste are tolerated by the people.

Houses of Basor and Mehtar are usually constructed on the out-skirts of the village. At times they are allowed to draw water from the well of other caste Hindus.

Furniture and Decoration

In general, common furniture with people are country-made cot to sleep, *pidai* or a small stool with seat knitted of *niwar*, *takhat* a wooden dais to sit,and the *argani*, a rectanglular wooden frame slung from the roof to keep clothes particularly bedding, etc.

In families where education has made its headway, chairs with wooden seats, tables, low wooden stools could also be found. Tastefully decorated doors, gates of very big size, sometimes as thick as 20" door frames, bearing rich engraving on the pattern of geometrical designs are very much in vogue even now. Persons of means would not mind spending six to eight hundred rupees on one single door. They are either locally made or purchased at the Barman fair. They are not only a piece of decoration but provide a measure of safety too, apart from reflecting the status. Doors and windows are coloured in black mixed with red and are kept clean with frequent coats of oil and water.

Besides this, there are some other articles in the household which need mention. In every house are to be found a *ghinouchi* a wooden plank with circular holes supported on legs to keep water-pitchers, *khuneta*, a long wooden tub to feed animals, usually fixed in the *sar* (cattle-shed), *konda* and a small pit dug in one of the verandahs to keep fire in it. *Kuthia* a big earthen vessel for storing grains with lid on the top and small hole in the lower portion on the one side is constructed by tne villagers themselves in various shapes and sizes. sometimes with a capacity to store 40 to 50 maunds of grains.

For interior decoration people display framed pictures and old calendars on the walls. Besides these, house wives would make crude sketches of birds and rough geometrical designs of red and yellow colours on the side of doors.

Utensils

Utensils used in the villages are invariably of brass and bronze. Even poorer sections have such utensils, though not many. Poor people who could not afford bigger vessels for storing water use earthen-ware like *ghada* or *mand*. Earthen and china-jars, filled with mango and lemon pickles, could also be seen in the kitchen.

Dress and Ornaments

Dress

Impress of changing times could evidently be seen in the dress pattern of the people. *Angarkha* a favourite upper-garment, worn at festive and

social occasions is totally replaced by shirt and *kurta*, either got tailored or purchased readymade. *Phatuhi, pachami*, a jacket-type of daily wear, full or half-sleeved, however, still continues to be in vogue. *Kabja* an under-upper-garment is also popular for its comparative cheapness. Shirt or *kurta* in rural areas, particularly with *dhoti* and cap or *safi*, occasionally with coat, could be called as the ceremonial dress. *Dhoti* as lower-garment in the daily dress is an essential piece, not only in rural sector but equally amongst urban inhabitants. Both urban as well as a few rural dwellers wear it over under-wear of striped cloth, not only as a necessity (being semi-transparent), but also as an expression of advancement. A good majority of the people tie it only in one style. Rural dwellers wear it up to knees while the urban dwellers and well off people in rural areas put it up to ankles. In urban sector alongwith *dhoti*, *pyjama*, trousers and shirts are popular. The use of headgear is gradually disappearing, particularly amongst younger generation. The plain and simple white cotton caps are gradually replacing the traditional *duppattas* and *angochhas* used as *safi*. Worn out *duppattas* and *angochhas* folded and twisted length-wise are sometimes tied loosely round the head as *safi*. Head-gear is an essential wear of older people while calling on persons with status, and on ceremonial occasions. One may go without an upper-garment but a cloth over the head is absolutely necessary. Use of under-garments, like *baniyan* and under-wear is increasing fast.

On ceremonial and festive occasions dress pattern remains the same but clothes are clean and tidy. The dancers on festivals like Holi and Diwali, however, use coloured turbans with a few other gadgets like *cowries* (shells) and peacock-feathers. In winter season people wear *mirzai*, a short coat made of cotton cloth and stuffed with cotton. Woollen and cotton sweaters and coats are common in the urban, and occasional in rural sector.

Like the dresses of males, female-dress has also changed completely. As an upper-garment blouse and *polka* have emerged to replace the traditional *pharia* and *angia*. *Polka*, as people differentiate it, is a half-sleeved blouse while a blouse contains even shorter sleeves. Similarly, among lower-garments the *lahanga* is replaced by full length coloured *dhoti* or sari. The use of under-garments in the rural areas amongst women is almost absent, but it is widely prevalent amongst the people of higher and educated strata. The married women have always the upper-cloth drawn over the head. In cold season there is no apparent change in the dress pattern of women except that an additional cloth like bed-sheet or spare *dhoti* or sometimes shawl is put over the shoulders to cover the upper part of the body.

Amongst childern shorts, *pyjamas*, shirts and bush-shirts are very much in vogue. *Baniyan* and *chaddis* form the ordinary daily dress. Girls usually put on frocks, shirts and *chaddi* but alongwith this, older girls also wear *dhoti* and blouse or *polka*.

Ornaments

Peopele are proverbially fond of gold or silver ornaments, not only as a means of personal decoration but as an indication of status. Men of means still wear few ornaments like *murki* or *bari* a thin gold ring in the ear, particularly, in the rural areas. *Talisman*, fitted in the black cotton thread could also be occasionally seen amongst rural dwellers. Rich persons, particularly, in the business community, wear ring and *sankal*, a gold chain around the neck. The use of small chain on the ear has totally gone out of fashion.

Women adorn themselves with a number of gold or silver ornaments. Round the ankle *rool, todal, pejnia bijore, payjal* are very much popular, each differing from the other only in shape, except *payjal*, which is a mere chain. Among the armlets commonly worn are *kakna, bagri, dohri, churia and gajra* alongwith glass bangles, an essential for a married woman. *Khangwari, hasli, pan* made of silver or gold are favourite necklace of the women who can afford them. *Long* or *khutia* of gold pierced through the nostril and fitted with a silver screw, is a very common ornament. Ears are adorned with *karnphul* of gold by the rich, and of silver with chains by the poor. On the forehead is fixed *bindiya* the chains of which reach up to ears on both the sides. Fingers of the hand are decorated with *mundri* or *chhalla*, while those of toe with *bichhiya* or *machhli*, a sign of married status or the *saubhagya* of women. Around the waist, a belt of silver known as *kaddora* is popular with those who could afford it.

Shoes

Men generally wear *kachhya* shoes which are made localfoly leather. They are made to last long in a rough wear and even during rainy season. *Kachhya* contains large flaps coming high up the leg in front and behind, with large turned toes. But these shoes, alongwith *charra*, another traditional foot-wear, are gradually getting out of the fashion and instead people prefer ordinary slippers. Such slippers are either got locally made of rough hide or purchased readymade. Canvas shoes are also gaining in use particularly with villagers because of their cheapness. Women in rural as well as in urban areas commonly wear *bayana*, a sort of *chappal* closed in front.

Tattooing

The practice of tattooing is much prevalent but the value attached to it in the past is waning. Among males the practice has almost vanished. However, a few could be found having these marks on the arms depicting usually either their own names or just a flower-vase. Women of all castes prefer these marks over various parts of the body. Many of them consider tattooing

marks essential, and a sign of their *saubhagya* or *suhag*, while others consider it as a means of adornment which goes with the body in heaven and is thus beyond human manipulation to withdraw ornaments after death. Some though not all attach medicinal value to tattooing. It is believed that chronic pain in any part of the body could be got rid of by having two or three tattooing marks on the affected part. The pattern of marks usually does not vary from caste to caste. Tattooing has been a passion with the Gond women, who used to wear it all over the body, but gradually by their Hinduization the practice has declined considerably. A dot at the centre of forehead, three dots arranged in a triangular form on the nose, another dot on the cheek and sometimes on the chin are favoured for enhancing facial beauty. Flower vases, symbolic pictures of lord Rama and Krishna, one's own name on the arm, small flower design on the fingers and wrist and small geometrical design on the upper-arm are much liked. The legs, just above the ankles, are also tattooed in such a way that the marks could be clearly visible above the anklets worn. Tattooing is done at an early age of 12-13 years, but after marriage. It, however, depends much on the availability of means to have it done. These marks are usually engraved either at some fair or at some bazar with the help of electrical machine by a professional. Previously, these marks used to be made by "Godantari", a professional woman, who used indigenous method and toured through villages. The method was to tie three needles together and dip them in the solution of *harra*, *koshusis*, etc., and then prick the needle in the body which left permanent marks.

Food

In general people have two meals a day, one in the mid-day and another in the evening. But the cultivator and labour classes usually require one additional meal in the early hours of morning before they go out for work. In the morning hours they eat *chapaties* with vegetable, left over from the previous night, or with pickles and *gur*. In summer their breakfast consists of *sattu* flour of parched barley, wheat and gram. It is very rarely that food is cooked for breakfast, particularly, in rural areas. Mid-day meals comprise boiled rice and pulse, *chapaties* and vegetables. But poorer sections who cannot afford wheat, relish *peja*, a *kodon* or *kutki* gruel, *khichri* a blend of rice and pulse or *kodon* or pulse, and a few *chapaties* of *birra*, wheat and gram-flour. In the evening usually people prefer *chapaties* and vegetables but poorer sections prefer *maheri*, a mixture of curd and rice or *kudai* and *dalia.*

On festive and special occasions they usually take *puries*, wheat cakes fried in *ghi*; *kheer*, rice boiled in milk; and *raita*, pumkin boiled and mashed in butter-milk with salt and other spices. Besides, *khurma-batia*, and *laddu* are also taken. These preparations could be enjoyed days after the festival is over. Since poorer sections cannot afford these delicacies they prefer *lapta*, a preparation of flour and *gur*, while *chapaties* are replaced by *puries* cooked in vegetable oil.

A majority of the population is non-vegetarian but as the non-vegetarian food is costly, it is taken only occasionally. Meat and fowls are the favourite of the people in general, but pork and other animals and birds are also relished on special occasions by some. Beef is consumed very rarely.

People in villages are very fond of a get-together on *konda*, or in some open ground in summer over a *chilam* (pipe) filled with tobacco usually after dinner. This get-together not only provides them entertainment through gossiping, but is also a place for finding out solution of ones personal problems. Many of the villagers and also some of the urban dwellers chew tobacco as a habit. Eating of *pan* after the meals is not only popular but gives a finishing touch to a feast offered. Habitual *pan*-eaters always keep with them a small bag containing betel leaves, areca-nuts and other ingredients of *pan*. Tea in the early hours of morning is popular not only amongst the town dwellers but also amongst villagers. An agricultural labourer sometimes may go to work without breakfast but he may not do so without tea. Thus, tea is occupying a very important position in the food-habits of the people. Tea and also *pan-supari* are offered in hospitality.

Narsimhapur has been declared "dry" District under prohibition laws since long and there is no means to ascertain the extent of the consumption of alcoholic drinks in the food-habits of the people. However, illicit distillation and occasional consumption of liquor by some people cannot be denied. Addicts to smoking of *ganja* (Indian-hemp) are found in a sufficiently good number in the northern part of the District. Like tea and *pan-supari*, smoking of tobacco in the form of *bidis* and cigarettes has become so much popular that they are also taken to be media for the expression of hospitality. Addicts to smoking of opium could also be found in pretty good number in the northern part of the District.

Amusement

Gossiping forms the main recreation of the people, particularly during the rainy season when they are comparatively free from work. Besides this, *choupada*, an indoor game, reading of *Alha-Udal*, *Ramayana*, especially in late evening, singing of *sehra*, etc., are favourite types of amusements of the rural people. Playing of cards also provides recreation to people, though it is more popular in urban areas. Various festive occasions, e. g., Holi, Harijoti, etc., also provide very good amusement by way of singing and dancing to castes like Ahir, Mehra. Amongst songs, *birha*, *bilwari*, *sehra*, *phag*, *sajnairag*, and *Alha* are the favourite songs of the people in which they are absorbed for considerable time. Radio-set under the Community Listening Schemes, films and western sports are the other means of pastime. For children, games like *kabaddi*, *khokho*, *gilli-danda*, *bhounra*, etc., provide entertainment. For women the

gossiping and singing on festive occasions are chief sources of amusement. Occasional visits to movies provide them a little of change in an otherwise monotonous life.

Festivals

Ramnavmi is the first festival of the *Samvat* calendar falling on the ninth day of Chaitra. This actually is followed by Nao Durga, the nine days worship of Goddess "Mata". During allthese nine days people keep fast and grow *jawaras* and worship them alongwith the Goddess "Mata". *jawaras* are taken out in procession with the attendance of band and music, ladies carrying them on their heads on Ramnavmi day for immersion in the lake or river. People also celebrate the birth of lord Rama on this day. Great importance is attached to the festival of Akti in rural areas as the agriculture year starts with this festival. It is observed on the third day of bright fortnight of Vaisakha. Akshaya-Tritiya is followed by Barsait, a festival of women alone, falling on the 15th day of dark-fortnight of Asadha (May-June). The banyan tree is worshipped by the married women in honour of "Savitri". the devoted wife who by persuasion of "Yama" brought her dead husband "Satyavan"back to life.

Harijoti or Hariyali Amavasya, the festival of low caste people is celebrated now by all on the 15th day dark-half of Sravana (July-August) to avoid the diseases in rainy season. The festival of Nag-Panchami is held on the fifth day of bright-fortnight of Sravana to prevent snake-bite. Raksha Bandhan or Rakhi falls on the full-moon day of Sravana which is more a social than a religious festival. Sisters tie *rakhi* thread on the wrist of brothers as an assurance for protection. This is followed by the festival of Bhujalia or Bhujaria on the first day of Bhadra (August-September). On the last eight days of Sravana, some grains of barley or wheat are grown in earthen pot called the Bhujaria. On the first day of Bhadra these pots are taken out by women on their heads in procession for immersion in the tank or river. A few preserved stalks are distributed amongst friends and relatives as a mark of respect. On the sixth day of dark fortnight of Bhadra is observed the festival of Harchhat by the married women having children for the welfare and protection of their children. On Bhadra eighth falls the Janmashtami, a festival observed in commemoration of the birth of Lord Krishna. On the 15th day of Bhadra, or the new–moon day, is held the festival of Pola in which oxen are worshipped, followed by the Teeja on the third day of Bhadra-*sudi*, meant exclusively for women. Married women observe fast for 24 hours without water. In the evening God Mahadeo and Devi Parvati are worshipped by women for the welfare of their husbands. The festival of Dussehra is preceded by small festivals like Santavan Saten, Anant Chaudas and Pitra Moksha Amavasya. Dussehra is celebrated on the 10th day of bright-fortnight of Asvina (September-October).

Nine days prior to Dussehra, *jawaras* are sown. This festival is the celebration of the victory of Rama over Ravan. People also hold that on this day Devi got victory over demon Bhainsasur and *jawaras* grown in its celebration, are taken out in procession on the ninth day with the attendance of band for immersion in a tank. Diwali is celebrated on the 15th day of dark-fortnight of Kartika (October-Nov.), 20 days after Dussehra, when Laxmi, the goddess of wealth, is worshipped amidst lights and explosion of crackers and fireworks. The occasion is marked in the District with the observance of *Mandai* a sort of fair on the fifth or sixth day after Diwali where people of various castes assemble with their *dhal*. *Dhal* is a big bamboo pole decorated with coloured cloth and peacock feathers. The man who intends to take out his *dhal* would worship goddess Devi alongwith it. Villagers invite the *dhal*-keepers in the neighbourhood to participate in the *Mandai* of their village. *Dhal* is taken out to that village in procession, with the help of four to six strings attached to on the top and the lower ends held by persons to the accompaniment of music and dance. In the *Mandai* the sacrifice of fowl or goat is offered to the image of goddess Chandi made of earth. Seven *parikramas* (rounds) around the goddess are made. While taking *parikramas* grains of urd pulse are thrown in the belief of averting *alaya-balayn*, evil. In *Mandai* dances are also performed. The festival of Holi is preceded by the festival of Sankranti and Vasant Panchami. Holi is celebrated in the usual way by lighting the bon-fire, sprinkling of coloured water and singing songs of *phag*. Favourite amusement on this occasion like *rai* step is in vogue, but performance by dancing-girls is less in vogue now.

Death Rites

In all the castes, except Mohammedans, Christians and Parsis, the dead are generally cremated. But in case of death occurring as a result of contagious diseases, snake-bite and suicide, the dead are burried. Children upto a certain age are burried. The corpse is given a bath and then covered in new cloth, red in case of a female and white for a male, and is taken out in procession on a bier headed by son or near relation to the burning *ghat*. The son carries the smouldering fire in a suspended earthen pot for kindling the pyre towards the head for a male and towards the toe for a female. After corpse is consumed by the fire the son sets the soul free by seven knocks on the skull. Then the son, with an earthen water-pot on the right shoulder walks round the pyre three times, dropping water, and finally dashing it on the ground. On the third day the son or other near relative go to the cremation ground for the collection of the bones and ashes which are then taken to the holy Narmada within 10 days. On the 11th day *pindas*, sacrificial cakes, are offered and the purification ceremony takes place. On the 13 th day, feast is offered to persons who attended the funeral and also to other relatives and friends. *Dan* (gift) of new utensils, clothes and other things of daily use of the deceased is made to a Brahmin. The duration of purification ceremony differs from caste to caste.

Communal Life

There are a number of pilgrim centres in the District where fairs are held every year on various festivals. Of these centres, Barmanghat on the banks of the Narmada is of great significance. A big fair in January is held every year on the occasion of Makar Sankranti, which lasts for about a fortnight, and is attended by about a lakh of pilgrims. The *Sapt-dhara-warahi* river, a tributory of the Narmada, meets the main river here, and to take dip in the confluence is considered sacred which wards off sin and evil. On both the banks of the river there are many old beautiful temples which are monuments of the traditional architecture and art. Of these, Shiva and Rani Durgavti temples are supposed to be built by the brave queen of Gondwana. Pisanhari, Lakshminarayan and the Radha Manmohan temples are also notable.

Besides, fairs at the time of Sankranti are also held at Saknalpur in Gadarwara Tehsil and Jhansighat and Daul in Narsimhapur Tahsil, in the month of January. The Saknalpur Sankranti fair lasts for about 20 days and is attended by about 10,000 persons. A few other fairs of importance are, Devi-ki-Madiya fair at Jhiriya in Chaitra, Mithwani Mela at village Mithwani in Chaitra, Pandava Mela at Barhat in Vaisakha, Shankarji-ka-Mela at Gadarwara Kheda in October, and Vasant Panchmi fair at Jhont Jungle in the month of Magha.

Folk-Songs and Dances

The festival of Raksha Bandhan, Diwali and Holi with their religious significance carry much of social importance also. All the three are observed as the festivals of merry-making and enjoyment. The folk-songs of the District are categorised for these festivals. The *saira* and *rachchre* are the folk-songs sung with accompaniment of dance by about 10 to 15 persons in the month of Sravana. The festivity lasts for three to four days. The custom of singing *saira* with dance is now gradualy declining and people prefer to sing the folk-songs only. *Diwari* or *diwali* is also the name of songs to be sung during the festival of Diwali by Ahirs only after they have offered *puja* to Gobardhan. *Diwari* is sung to the accompaniment of dance and drums. Ahirs wear special costumes which generally consist of a net-cover decorated with *cowries* and peacock feathers. They visit all the houses of upper-class and dance, for which they are offered presents. The festival of Holi is the most festive occasion of the year in which all take part without much of discrimination, and is enjoyed by young and old alike. The favourite amusement on this occasion used to be *raie* the dance of professionals and the singing of *phag* songs. The performance of *raie* is to be seen rarely now but the *phag* songs continue to enchant people. Besides these, there are other dances and the songs which are also of inter st but confined to

a section of the people. *Karma*, *shetan* and *sargonda* are the mixed dances to be performed by the Gonds at the time of weddings. Similarly, songs of *birha* are the favourite of Kachhis, *sajni* and *dola* of Dhimars and *bilwari* of Kirars.

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

Narsimhapur is primarily an agricultural District as the Census 1951 enumerated 2,44,470 persons deriving their livelihood from agriculture out of the total population of 3,39,110 persons. Thus, the persons engaged in agriculture and their dependants constituted 72 per cent of the total population. In order to get more accurate picture, as the Census 1951 reveals, the Working Force population of the District constitutes about 50 per cent[1] of the total population. Taking into account the entire Working Force, 76 per cent[2] are engaged in agricultural activities while the remaining are absorbed by non-agricultural occupations. Evidently, it has its profound influence on the income of the District. The total income of Rs. 946.43 lakhs[3] (estimated for 1956-57) comprised Rs. 566.28 lakhs[4] from agriculture, Rs. 44.75 lakhs[5] from animal husbandry and hunting, Rs. 12.09 lakhs[6] from forestry and the rest from non-agricultural occupations. The size of the various classes depending on agriculture as per 1951 Census is presented in the Table below :—

S. No.	Agricultural Classes	Males	Females	Total
1.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants	73,007	69,140	1,42,147 (58.14)
2.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependants	7,624	7,601	15,225 (6,23)
3.	Cultivating labourers and their dependants	37,850	37,577	75,427 (30,85)
4.	Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent-receivers and their dependants	5,310	6,361	11,671 (4 77)

(Figures in brackets are percentages.)

1. Regional Income Atlas of Madhya Pradesh, p. 10.
2. Ibid, p. 20.
3. Ibid, p. 2.
4. Ibid, p. 44.
5. Ibid, p, 82.
6. Ibid, p, 92.

As the Table amply brings out the fact a majority of the persons belonging to the agricultural classes are owner-cultivators. The next numerically important class is of cultivating labourers. The Census 1961 adopted a different pattern of economic classifiction. However, the predominance of agriculture is also reflected by this Census. Out of 1,90,956 "Workers",[1] 95,779 "Workers" or 50.2 per cent of the total "Workers" are engaged in cultivation. Besides, 44,645 "Workers" or 23.4 per cent of the total "Workers" are working as agricultural labourers. In other words, 74 per cent of the "Workers" are engaged in agriculture alone. The Table below presents the picture in respect of each of the tahsils :—

Tahsils	Total Workers	Cultivators	Agricultural Labourers
1. Gadarwara	95,860	49,370 (51.50)	23,322 (24 33)
2 Narsimhapur	95,096	46.409 (48.80)	21,323 (22.42)

LAND UTILIZATION

The area of the District has remained fairly constant at 12 lakh acres right from 30 Years' Settlement to this day. The Table below presents the pattern of utilization of the land for the year 1962-63 :—

Classification	Area (Acres)	Area (Hectares)
1. Area according to village papers	12,68,803	5,13,466
2. Forests[2]	3,49,918	1,41,607
3 Barren and unculturable land	99,928	4,018
4. Land put to non-agricultural uses	53,627	21,702
5. Culturable waste	52,184	21,118
6. Permanent pastures and other grazing lands	1,24,552	50,404
7. Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in net area sown	16,922	6,848
8. Current fallows	12,477	5,049
9. Other fallow lands	22,035	8,917
10. Net area sown	6,27,160	2,53,803

Land not available for cultivation has varied considerably since 1901. The statistics are not comparable as the concepts and methods have been modified from time to time, yet a comparison on a broad basis could, however,

1. Narsimhapur District Census Handbook, 1961, p.10.
2. The forest area shown here comprises 1,61,920 acres of Government Reserved forests and 1,87,998 acres of Revenue forests.

be made. The unoccupied area, i e., area not under agricultural use in the year 1901-02 was 3,87,146 acres while that occupied was 7,09,431 acres. In the year 1926-27, these figures were 3,58,080 acres and 7,48,069 acres, respectively.

As the Table on page 110 indicates 27.6 per cent of the area of the District was covered by forests in the year 1962-63. This includes the Reserved forests maintained by State Forest Department.

During the last eight to ten years the area under barren and uncultivable land has declined considerably. In the year 1953-54 the area under barren and unculturable land was 16,332 acres while in 1962-63, it came down to 9,928 acres (4,018 hectares). There is also a slight decrease in area under non-agricultural uses which came down from 55,491 acres in 1953-54 to 53,627 acres (21,702 ha) in 1962-63.

The area under culturable waste has gradually declined from 74,411 acres in 1953-54 to 52,184 acres (21,118 ha) in 1962-63. This reduction as could be seen from the figures for last 10 years reflects an increase in the net area sown. It implies that the area under culturable waste has been brought gradually under cultivation. Out of the 52,184 acres of culturable waste lands recorded in 1962-63, 28,014 acres can be brought under plough immediately, 17,078 acres after some improvement, and the rest, i. e., 7,092 acres consist of uneconomic patches of land or large blocks of land which are not reclamable for cultivation at reasonable cost. Likewise, area under miscellaneous tree crops and groves has also decreased considerably from 25,235 acres in 1953-54 to 16,922 acres (6,848 ha) in 1962-63. There is also a shrinkage in the area under permanent pastures and grazing land but the decrease is not appreciable.

The acreage under fallows, as the statistics reveal has also varied. As the Land Records figures show, the tendency to keep land fallow is deprecated by the cultivators. In the year 1902-03, about 17 per cent of the occupied area was fallow, while the same in the year 1962-63 works out to 2.7 per cent. The tendency to keep fallow is comparatively more in the hill and forest tracts where the soil is poor and cannot stand continuous cropping. In the fertile open plain the cultivators can not afford to keep the land fallow for fear that *kans* (*Saccharum spontaneum*) may appear and render that field unfit for cultivation. *Kans* takes hold of the soft soil of the Narmada valley and once firmly established is difficult to eradicate. The practice of embanking fields, to some extent, helps to get rid of *kans*. However, as the Narsimhapur soil is harder than the *mariar* and *murund* of Hoshangabad and the friable *mund* of Vindhyan plateau it is not so much a problem here as in the districts of Vindhyan plateau and other districts.

The area under crops during the year 1891-92 was 6,16,759 acres which decreased to 5,93,140 ascres in 1905-06 and since then it has been fluctuating.

The economic depression of the thirties brought about considerable fall in the area under cultivation.

In the year 1950–51 the gross area sown was 6,00,495 acres, which gradually increased to 6,48,620 acres (2,62,487 ha) in 1962-63. In the same year, 48.43 per cent of the total area was net area sown. Likewise, the double-cropped area also gradually increased from 16,156 acres in 1950-51 to 21,460 acres (8,685 ha) in 1962–63. Economic factors and the Government efforts through Grow More Food Campaign and Community Development Programme seem to be responsible for the increase in the area sown. Prevailing high Prices particularly during the fifties and onwards gave added incentive to the farmers to bring additional land under the plough. The area under crops is influenced by climatic factors also.

IRRIGATION

The District had been and is poor in the irrigation facilities. The irrigation potential of the District till recently was said to be very little. Explorations for the tube-well irrigation in the fifties raised hopes for extension of irrigation in some parts of the District. This potential when exploited fully will bring substantial area uuder irrigation. As the facilities for canal and tank irrigation were negligible the irrigation was done mainly by private wells. Little appears to have been done to develop irrigation right from the formation of the Central Provinces to the close of fifth decade of this Century. The State irrigation, which originated as a result of the recommendations of the Irrigation Commission of 1898, did not benefit the District. Sir Benjamin Robertson who was the Chief Commissioner of the Provinces, visited the District in the year 1913 and prepared schemes for harnessing the Shakkar, the Sitarewa and the Dudhi rivers for irrigation, but these schemes could not be implemented. The District also does not possess such tanks as could provide irrigation. Embankment of wheat fields had been, and still is, the main method of conserving moisture which is found more in Narsimhapur Tahsil than in Gadarwara. Large embankments hold up water in the fields during the early part of the rains, which ensures sufficient moisture for the crops even if the rains in September and October fail. While commenting on the security of best *haveli* soils Bourne observed, "These soils have a very high capillarity which enables them to retain a moist seed bed much longer than ordinary soils. In years of defective rainfall they can, therefore, be sown with a prospect of successful germination much later than the light soils. They can also supply sufficient capillary moisture to rabi crop to harvest without rainfall between sowing and harvest, although all soils will give increased out-turns if timely showers of winter rain are received."[1] The embanking is done either by enclosing the fields on all four sides or by

1. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1923-26, P 11.

building a large bank at the lower end to hold up water, the fields being converted into small tanks during rains.

It is because of the poor facilities of irrigation that the District had only 2,576 acres of irrigated land in 1891-92 and there was not much increase in the irrigated area. Of late in 1950-51 the total area irrigated could go up to 3,428 acres showing an increase of about 1,000 acres during a period of 60 years. The Table below presents the net area irrigated from 1950-51 to 1962-63 :—

(In Acres)

Year	Canals	Wells	Tanks	Other Sources	All Sources
1950–51	—	3,127	—	301	3,428
1951–52	—	3,057	—	531	3,588
1952–53	—	3,152	497	17	3,666
1953–54	—	3,775	—	137	3,912
1954–55	—	3,726	—	218	3,944
1955–56	—	4,288	—	48	4,336
1956–57	—	4,162	—	278	4,440
1957–58	—	4,394	—	295	4,689
1858–59	—	5,298	—	472	5,770
1959–60	—	5,303	—	528	5,831
1960–61	—	5,179	—	660	5,839
1961–62	—	5,850	—	256	6,106
1962–63	—	5,837	—	564	6,401

As the Table indicates, the main source of irrigation are wells which include tube-wells. Wells are used for irrigation all over District. The depth varies from 20′ upto 90′. At places it may go up to 100′. The cost of constructing a *pucka* well varies from Rs. 1,500 to Rs. 3,000. Most of the wells are *pucka*. Water from the wells is drawn by *motes*, Persian wheels, oil engines and electric pumps. *Mote* is a leather bucket which is drawn with the help of a pair of bullocks. The cost of *mote* varies from Rs. 60 to Rs. 120. It can irrigate upto three acres per day. Persian wheel is an iron wheel fitted with stays to hold buckets in position. The wheel is moved by an iron shaft attached to wheel on one side and to a gear-wheel where bullocks are yoked to move the wheel and draw water. They appeared in the District about the year 1925. The cost of a wheel varies between Rs. 700 and Rs. 1,000. Its irrigation capacity is from five to seven acres. Use of oil engines fitted with irrigation pumps is the post-Independence phenomenon.

According to the Livestock Census, 1961, there were 166 oil engines, 77 electric pumps, 296 Persian wheels and 1,166 *motes* in the District. The first two were mostly in use in Narsimhapur Tahsil while the other two in Gadarwara Tahsil.

Tube-Well Irrigation

Originally the work of ground-water exploration was taken up in 1955 and the Exploratory Tube-well Organization of Government of India drilled four successful trial holes at different places, i. e., at Kodia, Gadarwara, Kherua and at Sainkheda. These tube-wells were found very successful and, therefore, the trial holes were converted into production wells. Their results and estimated costs are shown in the Table below :—

S. No.	Location of Tube Well	Estimated Cost (Rs. in Lakhs)	Discharge (In Gallons per Hour)	Draw Down (In Feet)
1.	Kodia	0.944	27,300	19.00
2.	Gadarwara	0.944	38,100	24.42
3.	Kherua	0.944	46,500	25.15
4.	Sainkheda	0.944	42,840	12.00

The location of these wells is such that they command an area of 600 to 1,000 acres. Each of them has an irrigation capacity of 240 acres. The wells are being used for *rabi* irrigation.

The State Government, satisfied with the success of the experiment made in Gadarwara Tahsil, sanctioned the construction of 40 tube-wells in the Narmada valley out of which 31 tube-wells were allotted to Narsimhapur District. The work of construction was entrusted to a private firm and 25 tube-wells were constructed in the District till December, 1963. The results of these tube-wells have been shown in the Table below :—

S. No.	Location of Tube-Well	Estimated Cost (Rs. in Lakhs)	Discharge (In Gallons per Hour)	Draw Down (In Feet)
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Gadarwara	1.22	56,700	17
2.	Jamara	1.22	40,800	18
3.	Pithera	1.22	56,700	18
4.	Nandner	1.22	59,500	27
5.	Salichauka	1.22	43,100	18
6.	Ponar	1.22	45,600	18
7.	Sahwan	1.22	56,700	18
8.	Midwani	1.22	31,800	18
9.	Saithan	1.22	45,600	22
10.	Banwari	1.22	51,000	18

(Contd.)

1	2	3	4	5
11.	Kesla	1.22	40,800	18
12.	Bhoothkheda	1.22	27,840	21
13.	Gondijhiria	1.22	40,300	18
14.	Bamhori	1.22	47,400	15
15.	Chirahkalan	1.22	16,400	18
16.	Bhohani	1.22	17,800	18
17.	Panari	1.22	49,800	11
18.	Khursipur	1.22	20,850	35
19.	Jamara II	1.22	28,300	33
20.	Sudraskheri	1.22	35,150	18
21.	Bhatra	1.22	43,500	12
22.	Babaikalan	1.22	52,050	17
23.	Babaikhurd	1.22	40,000	18
24.	Amara	1.22	40,000	18
25.	Maregaon	1.22	34,000	18

The results of these tube-wells indicate that the area of Gadarwara Tahsil is rich in underground water. Under the Third Five Year Plan, on the basis of these results the construction of 16 Deposit tube-wells was undertaken in the District. Fourteen tube-wells under this scheme have been drilled during the years 1962-63 and 1963-64. Along with the programme of Deposit Wells Scheme exploratory work of 11 sets was also undertaken in the years 1962-63 and 1963-64, out of which seven tube-wells could be drilled till the end of 1963. The results of these tube-wells are as under :—

S. No.	Location of Tube-well	Estimated cost (Rs. in Lakhs)	Discharge (In Gallons per Hour)	Draw-Down (In Feet)
1.	Pipariya	1.375	12,000	20
2.	Imalia	1.375	9,000	
3.	Chanakachar	1.376	36,000	20
.	Mahegaon	1.376	25,650	19
5.	Dobhi	1.376	20,000	20
6.	Kashikheri	1.376	70,000	20
7.	Sukhakheri	1.376	18.500	20

By the end of September 1963, the District had 52 tube-wells. But out of these 52 tube-wells only 14 are operating providing water to fields. The Table below presents the area irrigated by these tube-wells in different years :—

Year	Tube-Wells in Operation (Nos.)	Area Irrigated	
		(Acres)	(Hectares)
1958-59	5	188	(76)
1959-60	5	422	(171)
1960-61	5	351	(142)
1961-62	6	298	(121)
1962-63	6	347	(140)
1963-64	14	967	(391)

Tank Irrigation

The District has no major tank nor is there any scheme to construct any such tank. However, some small tanks have been remodelled and improved during the Second Plan period.

The Nagwara tank is an old tank situated about 12 miles (19 kms.) south-west of Gotegaon Railway Station on the Itarsi-Jabalpur section of Central Railway. The work of repairs and improvement was started in February, 1960. The area of tank basin at F. T. L. is 79 acres (32 ha) and the gross capacity of the tank comes to 23.37 m. cft. and can irrigate 460 acres (186 ha).

The Gourtala tank is also an old tank situated about nine miles (14.5 kms.) south-east of Gotegaon Railway Station on the Itarsi-Jabalpur section of Central Railway. The work of repairs and improvement was started in April, 1961. The area of tank-basin at F. T. L. is 49 acres (19.8 ha) The gross capacity of the tank comes to 7.03 m.cft., and can irrigate 180 acres (72.8 ha) of land.

The Jagannathpur tank is situated 1½ miles (2.4 kms.) to the right of the 54th mile on the Narsimhapur-Sagar road. The repair work on this tank was started in January, 1960. The area of the tank basin at F. T. L. is 34 acres (14 ha) and the gross capacity of the tank comes to 5.94 m.cft., which can irrigate 110 acres (45 ha) of land.

The Mungwani Tola tank is a new tank situated about 1½ miles (2.4 kms.) to right of 19th milestone on Narsimhapur-Tendukheda road. The construction work of this tank was started in 1961. The area of the tank basin at F.T.L. is 17 acres (6.9 ha) and the tank has the capacity of 5.75 m.cft., to irrigate 90 acres (36.4 ha) of land.

The Kanharpani tank is an old tank on Narsimhapur-Lakhnadon road at a distance of four miles (6 kms.) from 10th milestone. The area of the tank basin at F.T.L. is 52 acres (21 ha). The gross capacity of the tank comes to 11.36 m.cft. to irrigate 200 acres (80.9 ha) of land.

Schemes for the repairs and improvement of Jagtapur tank, Lathgaon tank, Ranital and Gortala tanks at the cost of Rs. 2.92 lakhs, remained in progress at the beginning of the Third Plan.

A new irrigation project, Biranj Valley, medium in character has been included in the Third Plan. The dam site is five miles north-east of Tendukheda. Estimated to cost Rs. 40.00 lakhs, it will on completion irrigate an area of 6,000 acres.

Water Potential

Gadarwara Tahsil is most suited for digging of wells while Narsimhapur Tahsil for construction of tanks. Therefore, sites for the construction of a large number of tanks have been surveyed and these schemes are to be implemented in the Fourth and the Fifth Plan periods. The investigation on the Gangai tank scheme has already been completed and the construction will start very shortly. A number of tank sites, such as, Nadia, Chirchita, Bagdori, Babaria, Nayanagar, Hiranpur, Bagaspur have been found feasible after survey and investigation.

For underground water supply the area in the north of the Narmada has recently been explored and found to have a large quantity of underground storage. The tubewells at Mahegaon, Dobhi and Kashikheri in this tract are indicators of rich sources of underground water. The District thus has a substantial potential both of surface as well as of underground water supply but only a fraction of it has been harnessed so far.

Soil Erosion

The problem of soil erosion in the District is of considerable magnitude. There are several factors responsible for this phenomenon. The main factor is the undulating topograhy of the District which provides enough scope for the free surface drainage by the numerous streams and nullahs which intersect the hills. Fed by the rain water rushing down the hills forming ravines and deep scour, they become swollen during rains and while overflowing their banks, carry away productive soil.

The condition of the soil and the cropping pattern are also responsible for the erosion of the soil. The District contains mostly the black cotton soil and in this soil condition the usual practice of cultivation is to grow only *rabi* crops. The fields are kept fallow after the harvest till the next sowing season with the result that the soil is eroded. The large quantity of water is not absorbed by the soil and the surplus rain water washes away the top soil.

Though the District comes under *haveli* cultivation tract, yet the problem of soil erosion is significant throughout the District and it attains acute form over the adjoining areas of the Narmada, the Sher, the Shakkar and the Sitarewa

rivers and their tributaries. Erosion may be perceived in all forms ranging from sheet and rill erosion in *bandhas* to deep gullies and ravines along the rivers. Vast areas along these rivers have been rendered unfit for cultivation. Since the soils are mostly deep alluvial deposits along rivers and in the absence of hard parent material the cutting is more effective. Indiscriminate felling of forests and over-grazing along the banks of rivers are also contributory factors for soil erosion.

The areas which have been affected severely by these cuts are the villages Bhama, Dighori-Magarmuha, Madanpur-Dhilwar, Ram-Piparia, Sankal-Dhamna, Deonagar, Gorakhpur-Piparia, Mohpani-Shahpur, Barman-Linga, and Bhainsa-Jamunia. In Deonagar, near Gotegaon a cut of the depth and width of 20′ running for miles has occurred; the loss in this area is inestimable.

Total soil losses have not been reckoned. On an average they may be estimated at the rate of 50 tons per acre along river banks and about 10 tons per acre over the remaining areas.

This District has been put under a separate soil conservation sub-division in order to deal with the problem of soil erosion. Primarily contour-bunding work is taken up on cultivated catchment having 3-4 per cent slopes. One demonstration project has been launched in the District to display soil conservation measures. Contour-bunding has been taken up at places listed below. Achievement with regard to each of the centres has also been given.

Achievements in Soil Conservation
Till October, 1963

	Name of Agricultural Assistant Centre	Achievement Acres (Hectares)
1.	Agricultural Assistant, Gadarwara Centre, Nandna-Lilwani Bhaisa	653 (264)
2.	Agricultural Assistant, Narsimhapur Khamtra, Dokerghat, Bakori, Simariya, Mungwani, Paras Thana, Bhoti, Pindari, Piparia, Adariya, Patha-pathiya	1,650 (668)
3.	Agricultural Assistant, Gotegaon Ronsri, Goncher, Kutri, Dipariya	320 (130)
4.	Babai-Chichli : Lawasar, Khairy Babai-Kala, Basuriya, Govt. Farm	400 (162)
5.	Kareli Nandwara, Simariya-kala	190 (77)
6.	Pilot Demonstration Project Khairy and Surdi	525 (212)
	Total	3,738 (1,513)

Soils

The Upper Narmada valley, as the geologists have agreed upon, once formed a large marine lake. "The soils of the valley have been usually described as alluvial, but they are in origin not alluvial but lacustrine. Being deposited by water, the sub-soil has been subjected to much silting and is rich in carbonate of lime, which often occurs in the form of limestone nodules locally known as *chunkankar*.

"The lacustrine origin of the soils of the valley has given them a much greater depth and richness than occur in the residual soils of many other parts of the province."[1] The soil being a formation of decaying vegetation is considered to be very fertile.

It becomes imperative to consider the general topography of the land to have an idea of the soils of the District. The District, on the basis of its topography, could be divided into two main divisions, i. e., trans-Narmada portion and cis-Narmada portion. In the trans-Narmada portion in the extreme east Vindhyan escarpment begins to rise abruptly from the northern bank of the river and in the centre Vindhyan hills recede in a bayline formation and here the District extends to the north of the river through a small but fertile plain meeting Sagar and Damoh districts upon the forest-clad ascent to the tableland behind.

The remaining portion about five-sixth of the District comes as cis-Narmada portion. As the topography of the District indicates a great part of the District lies in the valley but the southern part extends beyond the valley on to the forest-clad Satpuras. The general width of the open country between the Narmada and the base-line of the hill averages about 20 miles (32.2 kms.). The southern boundary of the District is more irregular.

The cis-Narmada portion of the District could be divided into three main belts stretching over the whole length of the District, i. e., the *haveli* belt, sandy light soil belt and the riverain belt. The *haveli* belt consists of lacustrine deposit which has weathered away into very fine clay and clay-loam of great depth and very high capillarity. On the whole, this belt is one of the richest and most secure tracts. With this, streaks of light soil occur in uneven position in the immediate vicinity of water-courses which cross the *haveli*.

Autumn crops, such as, cotton and jowar are grown on lighter soil in the vicinity of water-courses, but the *haveli* proper is kept engaged in the cultivation of more valuable spring crops, wheat, *birra*, (wheat mixed with gram) masur, linseed, teora, and maghel til.

1. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1923-26, p. 3.

On the fertility of the *haveli* tract Sir Charles Elliot observed about 85 years ago, "But the feature which will most distinctively be impressed on his (the traveller's) memory will be the immense fertility of the valley, and the great plains of wheat which seem to stretch into immeasurable distance around him. But with all deductions and allowances made, the traveller's first impression is substantially correct-that he is standing in the richest and most fertile valley in India. The cultivation may be rougher and less careful than elsewhere, but this is the only soil in the world which will bear wheat crops for forty years in succession without a fallow and without manure." [1] Bourne while describing the *haveli* belt as one of the richest and most secure tracts in the Central Provinces further writes, "The central *haveli* is not, however, so conspicuous for the heaviness of crop outturn as for its security from crop failure. Unlike the less fortunate Jabbulpore district adjoining to the west, the Narsinghpur district is not visited by frequent calamities such as hail snd rust, etc. The high capillarity of the soils of the *haveli* enables them to retain a moist seed bed and to supply sufficient moisture to carry the spring crops to harvest in years of scanty rainfall and in the absence of winter rains." [2]

There is a marked and clear difference between the *haveli* belt and the sandy light soil belt merging in hilly area of the south. In the area adjoining the *haveli* tract which is the border of the sandy belt there is superior sandy clay which grows wheat and *birra.* The predominant soils of the sandy belt can produce only gram and til, and the *kharif* crops such as jowar, rice, etc. There are large stretches of coarse sand often in uneven portions amid hill and jungle cut up by water-courses in the southern portion of the belt. The eastern portion has also the same conditions but mixed coarse gravel. This area is capable of producing only coarsest millets like kodon and kutki. These areas are also kept fallow for grazing purposes as there is a great demand from *haveli.*

The riverain belt commences with slight undulation on the northern border of the *haveli.* The general position becomes more and more uneven until the ravine country on the banks of the Narmada and adjoining the confluences with its main effluents are approached. Over 59 per cent of the total occupied area in the two main riverain groups is in the *deoghar* or sloping position. Strips of level land do occur between the borders of *haveli* and water-courses. But only a small fraction of the total area in this belt is in the *saman* or dead level position. These strips possess rich clay and clay-loam of *haveli* tract. However. the general unevenness of position has rendered it impossible for soils to weather to the same fineness of texture as in *haveli.* The predominant soils are ordinary loams having a considerable quantity of limestone nodules with considerable amount of silt and clay due to their lacustrine origin. The depth of the soil is

1. Quoted, Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 90.
2. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1923-26, p. 5.

considerable and the coarseness of the texture varies with the unevenness of their position. These loam soils have much less capillarity than the clay loam of *haveli*. The riverain belt when contrasted with the fertility of the *haveli* is certainly inferior. Wheat, and *birra*, and gram alternated with jowar and cotton are usually grown.

Thus, the District possesses a wide range of soils right from the rich clay and clay-loam of the *haveli*, through fine loam and coarse loam to a coarse limestone mixture in the riverain tracts on one hand, and on the other from sandy clay, sandy loam and fine and coarse sand to the coarse half-weathered sand stone detritus sometimes mixed with gravel, found at the base and on the lower slopes of the forest-clad hills on the border of the District.

Above is a general description of the main characteristics of the predominant soils in various parts of the District. It now remains to examine the soils in greater details. Actually the soils of the District have not been so far surveyed for scientific soil classification. The existing soil classification rests on the revenue settlement operations carried out in the past. These classifications in the settlement were mainly to devise measures for the assessment of land revenue and not for the scientific study of the soil.

At the 30 Years' Settlement only four kinds of soil were distinguished. In the subsequent Settlement nine kinds of soil were recognised. In addition, position classes were introduced for the first time. At Bourne's Settlement (1923-26) a new scale of soil and position classes was adopted corresponding with the main varieties of soil texture and position affecting values actually found in the District.

Thirteen soil classes were adopted. They are described below :—

Kaber I

Kaber I is the richest and heaviest soil in the valley. It is a very fertile clay soil of great depth and rich in carbonate of lime. It is black in colour and usually takes on a bluish tinge when dry. It can produce all crops except those like cotton which suffer from excessive moisture. It has an extraordinary high capillarity and retains sufficient capillary moisture to bring a *rabi* crop to harvest without winter rains. The heaviest variety occurs in the east of Narsimhapur Tahsil *haveli* adjoining the Patan Tahsil of Jabalpur.

The principal defects of this soil are its high plasticity and cohesion. It dries slowly and clods quickly upon drying. The moisture zone in which granulation can be obtained is, therefore, very short. This difficulty has been overcome by constructing field embankments which submerge the soil during the rains and produce moist seed bed at sowing time.

Three varieties of *kaber I* can be distinguished. (I) The best is that which appears of ash colour during the summer. It produces wheat, paddy and all other crops in plenty. (II) The brown colour *kaber* produces all crops. It produces wheat only when there is plenty of rain till October. (III) The jet-black *kaber* produces gram, paddy and all pulses. Wheat is also produced but not so well as on ash coloured *kaber*.

Kaber II

Slightly inferior *kaber II* is a lighter variety of the same species. It is a producer of wheat but is also an excellent soil for all other crops, particularly rice, and leguminous crops, such as, gram, masur, teora, batra, etc. In well-drained positions it yields excellent crops of maghel til and jowar also.

Mund-Kaber

It is a superior clay-loam with capillarity a little less than that of *kaber I* but with a much lower plasticity and cohesion. It is friable and granulates easily and is an excellent wheat soil. It is rich in carbonate of lime and usually contains a small amount of limestone nodules. It is unsuited to rice and less suited than *kaber* to leguminous crops.

Mund I and II

Mund is an ordinary loam soil classed as *mund* or *morand*. It is tractable to plough, but owing to its low degree of capillarity is dependent upon a well-distributed rainfall. It contains a considerable amount of admixture of limestone nodules. *Mund I* grows wheat and gulabi gram. It could also grow jowar, kodon, urd, moong and tur mixed together, if not water-logged. Paddy does not thrive in it. This is easiest for cultivation. There is a local saying : *Kabar jote labora mund jote gunda*. *Mund II* is brown coloured soil. It produces alternatively jowar, kodon, urd, moong, and tur mixed together and gram. It also grows masur but it cannot grow teora.

Patarua I and II

Patarua I is really the remnant of the above three classes of the soil washed away by way of erosion. Thus, it is an inferior coarse loam soil mixed with sand and *chunkankar*. It produces gram, til, and teora. *Patarua II* is very inferior yellowish soil. It is usually allowed to lie fallow for some years. Gram, and til are grown in alternate years.

Domatta I and II

Domatta I is one of the inferior soils having a mixture of yellow soil and some sand. It does not grow wheat without irrigation but, grows all other crops. *Domatta II* is like *domatta I* but has larger proportion of sand and yellow soil. It is an excellent rice soil and also grows gram and the mixed crops of jowar,

tur, moong, urd, etc. When embanked it is sometimes double-cropped in good years with rice and gram.

Sehra

This is formed by deposit of sand and silt mixed with black soil. Crops like paddy, kutki and all other millets are grown over it during the rains. It also grows wheat and gram if sown in September. If the sowing is delayed showers of rain or irrigation are necessary to bring the crop to maturity.

Kachhar

It is formed by deposits of clay as the flood water of the river or nullah enters the fields. It produces all crops and the yield of crops is also very good. Wheat and sugarcane if accompanied with irrigation give good yield.

Ritua

It is a very inferior sandy soil and can grow til, kutki, and jagni during the rainy season, if manured. It requires constant showers or heavy irrigation.

Bhatua

It is an odd mixture of sand, pebbles and a very little percentage of clay. Thus, it is a very inferior soil. It is generally allowed to remain fallow and is cultivated only when there is no other land available for cultivation.

Area in cultivation classed according to soils is shown in the Table[1] below :—

Soil	Area (Acres)	Percentage
Kaber I	60,610	8
Kaber II	87,382	12
Mund-Kaber	72,269	10
Mund I	85,351	11
Mnnd II	1,18,863	16
Domatta I	47,604	6
Domatta II	60,907	8
Pataruа I	93,347	13
Patarua II	22,546	3
Sehra	53,140	7
Bhatua	27,915	4
Ritua	5,179	1
Kachhar	7,572	1
Gairmumkin	2,307	Nil
Total	7,44,992 + 377 M.S.	100

1. Ibid, Appendices, p. 17.

Besides, cultivated soils in the District are also distinguished on the basis of crops grown, i.e., wheat land, minor crop land or garden land. A classification according to position of the soil is also recognised, i.e., the wheat land could thus be *dhongr* or highlying land damaged by drainage, *bharkila* or land cut up by water channels, *ujarha* or land exposed to damage by wild beasts owing to its situation at a distance from the village, *bandhia* or fields with small embankments and *bandhan* or fields with high embankments. Other types of land were also thus classified according to their positions.

Areas comprising the R. I. Circles of Gotegaon, Narsimhapur, Kareli, Barman, Dobhi, Sihora and Gadarwara are the most fertile tracts of the District. Least productive tracts consist of Shrinagar, Sainkheda, Chichali and Dangidhana.

Principal Crops

Narsimhapur District is primarily a *rabi* area. Wheat is the staple crop. Other important crops are gram and linseed amongst *rabi* crops, and paddy, jowar and til amongst *kharif* crops. The District is surplus in the production of food-grains. Wheat, gram, peas, tur, jowar and teora are exported from the District. Deficit of rice is met through imports. Acreage and out-turn of principal crops are shown in Appen.—A.

The distribution of crops in the various tracts is as follows[1]:—

(1) *Haveli* Tracts : *Birra* (mixture of wheat and gram), gram *(Cicer arietinum)*, double cropped rice *(Oryza sativa)* followed by gram *(Cicer arietinum)* or masur *(Ervum lens)*, linseed *(Linum usitatissimum)*, teora *(Lathyrus sativus)*, batra *(Pisum arvense)*, masur *(Ervum lens)* and the rice mixture crop.

(2) Riverain Tracts : Cotton *(Gossypium sp.)* mixture, jowar *(Sorghum vulgare)* mixture, gram *(Cicer arietinum)*, til *(Sesamum indicum)* and tur *(Cajanus indicus)*.

(3) Sandy Tract: Rice *(Oryza sativa)*, gram *(Cicer arietinum)*, jowar *(Sorghum vulgare)* mixture, tur *(Cajanus indicus)* mixture, til *(Sesamum indicum)*, kodon *(Paspalum scrobiculatum)* and kutki *(Panicum psilopodium)*.

Wheat

The Narmada valley, of which Narsimhapur is one of the districts forms the richest tract in the State. The *Ain-e-Akbari*, makes an eloquent mention of the wheat trade with Gujrat and the Deccan from the wheat tract of Upper Narmada valley.[2] The locally distinguished varieties of wheat are Pissi, Jalaliya,

1. Ibid, p. 50.
2. Report on the Marketing of Agricultural Commodities, Wheat, p. 1.

Kathia, Bangasia, and Dhana. Pissi is small soft yellow wheat. Jalaliya is a large yellow grain somewhat harder than Pissi and is preferred by the people. Kathia is a hard, reddish and bearded grain and is less liable to injury than others. Bangasia, when standing in the field has a dark coloured beard, its grains being tipped dark. It is now rarely grown. Dhana is grown by a few and it is so called because its seeds are rounder than others and resemble those of coriander. Pissi is now generally grown in the embanked fields in limited area. Cultivation of wheat and gram is the first preference of the farmer of the District. It is grown every where barring hilly tracts and poor soils.

The land for wheat is prepared by cultivating it three or four times with the cultivator or surface plough or *bakhar* between May and October. The sowing is done towards the end of October or in November if the rains are late. After sowing nothing is required until the harvest, which takes place in March and April. Wheat, when grown in the unembanked fields is usually mixed with a proportion of gram which helps to keep up the productive power of the land. The scientific explanation for this process is that the plants of the pea tribe increase the fertility of the soil in which they are grown by assimilating nitrogen through their roots. It is also favourable as the cultivator hopes to secure a fair out-turn from at least one of the crops of the mixture. The addition of gram increases the productiveness of wheat sown with it, and the out-turn of wheat mixed with gram in the proportion of 18 per cent will be only 15 per cent less than that of wheat sown alone. Wheat is sometimes grown in rotation in embanked fields with a double crop of rice followed by gram. In Gadarwara Tahsil the crop of mixed wheat and gram alternates with masur (lentil), teora or gram sown alone. The grains of wheat and gram are separated by passing the mixture through wire-net. Wheat is very liable to suffer from rust in Narsimhapur owing to heavy rain and the black soil having the quality of retaining moisture. The damage caused by white ants and *kandua* or smut is very rare. The crop is sometimes attacked by insects called *kata* which eat the young plants and by another called *saunr* which destroy the roots.

The area under wheat as the statistics show is subject to wide fluctuations, mainly on account of climatic factors and competition with other crops. The area under wheat at the time of first Settlement, (1864) was 2,24,378 acres and in the year 1893-94 it rose to 2,45,975 acres which is an all time record. Since this date it has been fluctuating much below this figure. As the agricultural statistics further show, much of the area covered by wheat has been put to the cultivation of gram.

Gram

Though second important *rabi* crop of the District yet, in view of the area it commands, it would not be incorrect to say that gram is an equally important

crop of the District. Three important varieties of gram are chiefly grown, viz., Pira, Jhumkiya, and Parbatia. Pira has a yellowish or reddish grain; Jhumkiya is yellowish, smaller than Pira and has pods on each stalk, hence deriving name from *jhumka* a cluster. Parbatia is a whitish grain sown in a little quantity. It is so named as it was first imported from Parvatipur in Andhra Pradesh. Another variety known as Malida which has a larger grain is also grown in the District. Besides these, other varieties are also grown. The Department of Agriculture introduced Gulabi gram about 50 years ago. An improved strain of the gram under the name D-8 which was evolved by the Department some 35 years ago has established itself firmly. For parching purposes this variety is most suited and has all-India demand. EB-28 is another improved strain distributed by the Department.

The preparation of the land for sowing gram is exactly the same as is for wheat. However, it can be grown on inferior soil and requires a bit less care than wheat. It is usually the first crop on newly broken black soil. It is sown and reaped generally a fortnight before wheat. The sowing of gram is generally mixed with wheat, in rotation with wheat, and in rotation with cotton and jowar. In times of scarcity the preference of the cultivator goes for gram as it is comparatively cheaper and a measure of it will keep a larger area under cultivation than an equal measure of wheat seed. Therefore, it is more advantageous when it is necessary to avoid fallow.

During the last 70 years area under gram has definitely shown an upward trend. At 30 Years' Settlement (1864) the area under gram was 1,05,052 acres but subsequently till the year 1902-03 there was a decreasing trend except for two years 1894-95 and 1895-96. Thereafter, the acreage continued to expand till 1957-58 when the area reached 2,15,129 acres, the record figure. The years following showed a little shrinkage and the area under gram in the year 1962-63 stood at 1,95,321 (79,044 ha).

Linseed

It is an important commercial crop and to sow it is speculative. Besides, the cultivation of this crop exhausts the soil and, therefore, very little land is cultivated under it. Til (sesamum) has largely come into favour, which has affected the area under linseed, as til could be cheaply grown and unlike linseed is less liable to injury from bad weather and the attacks of caterpillar. Linseed is much prone to rust. Sometimes it is grown on the borders of the field as cattle do not eat it. It is sown at the same time when wheat is sown but in furrows and occasionally broadcast: it is reaped a little before wheat. In an acre, on an average 15 lbs. seed is sown and the standard out-turn of the crop is 250 lbs. per acre in this District. The crop is getting popular as the area under this crop is gradually increasing. The varieties of linseed which are generally grown are the white having a white flower and the copper coloured having blue flower. In its oil contents the white variety is the better one.

Rice

In view of the area it commands rice is the important *kharif* crop of the District. It is confined to low-lying areas where water accumulates, viz., Salichauka, Pandaria and Tendukheda areas in Gadarwara Tahsil and Dhamna, Nagwara, Bachai, Gorakhpur and Piparia areas of Narsimhapur Tahsil. However, it is characterised by violent fluctuations in the area sown under it. The area varied between 22,000 and 70,000 acres from 1891-92 to the end of first decade of 20th Century. In the second and third decades the fluctuations of area were smooth and not violent. In the fourth and fifth decades there were no significant fluctuations. In 1962-63 the area was 38,521 acres (15,589 ha). Rice is grown as a catch crop in the best embanked fields of *haveli* villages to occupy the land until it can be prepared for the next crop. However, the yield in *haveli* tract is poor. It is also grown at the foot of the hills in *sehra* soil. Cultivation of paddy in general is given very little care. It is sown broadcast and weeding is done twice. Like area, the out-turn of rice has also fluctuated much. It ranged, as the figures in the Table (Appen. A) will indicate, between 8 thousand to 10 thousand tons during the years 1955-56 to 1962-63. The standard yield per acre in the District is 960 lbs.

The cultivation of paddy could not comparatively make much headway mainly for the paucity of irrigation facilities and is confined to scattered patches of land. The area under Japanese method of paddy cultivation during the year 1962-63 was 410 acres (166 ha). About 100 cultivators are practising this method. The achievement under this scheme is low, also as the farmers prefer to sow early varieties of paddy with a view to raising a second crop from the same field.

Jowar

Jowar is the principal *kharif* crop. It is sown in the entire District but in rotation with gram, tur and cotton, and frequently as a mixture with them. Previously, jowar was not so popular as it is today. It is certainly gaining in preference of the cultivators. The area under this crop in the District at 30 Years' Settlement (1864) was only 11,647 acres which subsequently increased to 31,454 in 1891-92 and 33,415 acres at the next Settlement. From 1893-94 to 1929-30 the acreage under jowar varied within wide limits, from 5,824 acres in 1906-07 to 48,293 acres in 1897-98. The preference for the cultivation of jowar is of recent origin. This is reflected from constant increase in the area occupied by it since 1950-51. The year 1960-61 witnessed the record acreage of 1,03,259 acres (41.787 ha) under this crop.

Sugarcane.

The cultivation of sugarcane has fallen considerably. At the time of 30-Years' Settlement (1864) the area under sugarcane cultivation was 6,611 acres

which the District has not reached so far. For the decline in the area under sugarcane, De Brett says, 'a striking evidence of the decline which has taken place in consequence of the opening of the Railway and the resulting competition with more favoured tracts."[1] In view of the very low figure of 527 acres under sugarcane at the subsequent Settlement the observation of De Brett appears to be correct. Sugarcane did not regain the lost ground in later years.

Sugarcane cultivation is concentrated around Kareli upto Kurpa to the east and Bohani in the west. Unirrigated cane is grown in Margaon, and Chichli Mohpani.

The Department of Agriculture has taken up a scheme for the development of sugarcane cultivation in the District. However, the scheme till 1963-64 remained restricted to the supply of improved seed from the Central Sugarcane Research Station, Coimbatore, and supply of nitrogenous and phosphatic fertilizers. It is proposed to start a sugar factory at Kareli in the vicinity of which sugarcane is grown in abundance. It is further expected that the area under sugarcane may increase to 8,000 acres (3,237 ha) in this area. With this end in view, irrigation facilities are being developed near about Kareli Baghwar and Mohad.

Pulses

In the total cultivated area pulses occupy substantially large area. Amongst pulses except gram, teora occupies the largest area and is followed by masur. Tur and peas coming after masur are equally important. In the year 1961-62 and 1962-63 teora alone occupied 51,407, acres (20,804 ha) and 44,934 acres (18,184 ·ha) of land, respectively. The out-turn was 8,348 and 7,833 tons, respectively. Masur was hardly grown at 30 Years' Settlement (1864). But it gained popularity in later years and in 1891-92 came to occupy 29,704 acres. In the year 1961-62 masur was cultivated on 24,379 acres. In the same year 18,790 acres were devoted to the cultivation of peas and 17,465 acres to tur.

Til

Amongst oilseed crops til is most important. Til is both a *rabi* and a *kharif* crop. At 30 Years' Settlement til was grown barely on 2,912 acres, but it established its popularity and occupied 20,764 acres at the subsequent Settlement. Area under til has been subject to wide fluctuations and as such it is not possible to make out any trend. However, statistics of the last 15 years show that its popularity is waning.

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1. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1885-94, p. 13.

Kodon and Kutki

The entire inferior soils, particularly in the southern hilly tract are kept occupied by coarser grains like kodon and kutki. They are mainly grown by poor Gonds. These two crops accounted for 64,564 acres at 30 Years' Settlement (1864). Maximum acreage of 82,244 was recorded in 1915-16 and minimum of 42,664 in 1925-26, during the period 1891-92 to 1929-30. Now these crops do not command the same prestige and the area has gone down considerably. In 1961-62, it was 31,338 acres (12,682 ha) only.

Cotton

Cotton is also one of those crops which has lost its popularity. Cotton was largely grown at the time of 30 Years' Settlement (1864) when it covered 74,464 acres, the demand in the English market caused by the American War having operated to extend its cultivation. Since then it has declined. The highest area occupied by cotton was 48,103 acres in 1908-09 and lowest area of 15,515 acres in 1895-96 during the period 1891-92 to 1929–30. In 1962-63, cotton was grown only in 809 acres.

Fruits and Vegetables

During the last few years, gradually more area is coming under these crops. The acreage under these crops rose from 2,798 in 1950-51 to 3,661 acres in 1960-61. In 1962-63 these crops commanded 3.985 acres. Details of the area in the same year were : guava 192 acres (78 ha), papaya 83 acres (34 ha), banana 8 acres (3 ha), orange 171 acres (69 ha), mgngo 591 acres (239 ha), other fruits 236 acres (96 ha), total fruits aggregating 1,281 acres (519 ha); potato 477 acres (193 ha), sweets potato 460 acres (186 ha), onion 519 acres (210 ha), summer vegetables 342 acres (138 ha), winter vegetables 906 acres (367 ha), total vegetables aggregating 2,704 acres (1,094 ha).

Other crops of minor consequence included bajra 1,217 arces (491 ha), maize 806 acres (326 ha), sawan 2,794 acres (1,131 ha), urd 427 acres (173 ha), condiments and spices 955 acres (386 ha) and sunnhemp 3,133 acres (1,268 ha).

Agricultural Implements

Hal is a beam affixed to a heavy and flat piece of wood. This heavy piece of wood has two handles at its upper end, one below the other and a sharpened piece of wood (called *padahari* or *chosh*) is fitted at its lower end. It is nearly parallel to the beam but its sharper end is inclined towards the ground. To this piece of wood is fitted a sharp and 1½' iron flat rod for piercing into the soil and turning it over. Two bullocks are yoked to the *hal* and a thin rope to control the two bullocks is tied to the upper handle. The driver controls the *hal* with his left hand and in his right holds a bamboo stick with iron blade, having a sharp

and curved edge at its lower end to drive the bullocks and to clean the plough share of soil sticking to it. This *hal* is made of heavier wood when deep ploughing has to be done or sugarcane has to be sown. In the latter case it is called *nagar* and the heavy plough is driven by four bullocks or two strong ones. Formerly, the whole *hal* with all equipments used to cost about Rs. 10. The cultivators used to get wood for it freely. Now it costs about Rs. 50.

Iron ploughs were introduced in the District about 40 years back, but their use is still very limited. Livestock Census of 1961 enumerated only 57 iron ploughs as against 43,639 wooden ploughs.

The other most important implement for cultivation is *bakhar*. All fields have to be ploughed with it four to seven times in a year excepting heavily embanked fields of good quality *kaber I* and *mund I* soils of the Gotegaon circle.

The *bakhar* is a round thick wooden log about 4' long fitted with two thin beams for affixing yoke for the bullocks and two spokes. Fitted below in these spokes is a plate or iron called *pans*. It is affixed to their lower ends with iron rings called *kordra*. The outer edge of the iron plate is sharpened to pierce into the soil and to turn it over. In the centre of the thick job a hole is made to fit in a handle about 3' long to control the *bakhar* and the bullocks by the drive just as in the case of a *hal*. When paddy or kodon seeds mixed with jowar, urad, moong and tur are sown, they are broadcast in the field and the soil is turned by the *bakhar*. This is also done when kutki or til mixed with tur, sama, bajra, rajgir and gram is sown by broadcasting. This implement used to cost about Rs. 10 formerly, but now it costs Rs. 50 to Rs. 60.

Hal and *bakhar* are the two main implements of cultivators but the service rendered by the traditional bullock-cart to the cultivator cannot be left without a mention. Like the above implements, the bullock-cart also plays a very important role in cultivation. It is used in all the agricultural operations right from carrying seed to the fields to transporting the crop to the market. It costs between Rs. 200 and Rs. 400.

Smaller implements like sickle, *khurai*, *khurpa*, axe, etc., do little but important jobs for the cultivator. A cultivator without these cannot go ahead with cultivation, *khurai* and *khurpa* have carved handles of wood into which is fitted a sharpened iron piece and are used for weeding and similar other operations. Axe is found practically in every house in the rural areas, used for cutting wood, clearing the ground and other odd jobs. In areas where jowar is grown the agriculturists require a cutter called *garassi* and chopping machine which cost about Rs. 5 and Rs. 25, respectively.

Winnowing of threshed crop is usually done manually with the help of natural wind. A man takes threshed crop in a basket and while standing high on a stool gradually releases it on the ground. With this method husk is separated from the grain. But a few, who can afford, possess the winnowing machine. This machine is also used by smaller cultivators who procure it either from big owners of land or from some Government agency on hire. Winnowers came into use in the District in the year 1925 but their use spread only after 1944. Now their number exceeds 2,000 in the District.

In Narsimhapur, as has already been stated, sugarcane is gaining favour with the cultivators. For crushing the cane big cultivators own crushers and big iron pans. Smaller cultivators can procure them on hire. Sultan and Nahan cane-crushers were the first to appear in the District, in the year 1925. Karmat crushers came after 10 years. Kirloskar crushers introduced by the year 1947 are gaining favour of the farmers.

The District at the end of the year 1962-63 had 47,004 ploughs, 34,338 carts, 178 sugarcane-crushers, 204 oil engines, 59 electric pumps, 38 tractors and 129 *ghanis*. The number of ploughs at the time of 30 Years' Settlement (1864) was 34,603 which decreased to 25,629 at the subsequent Settlement. In 1909-10 the number went up to 30,555. In 1919-20 the number further increased to 34,915. In 1962-63 the number stood at 47,004 which gave a proportion of 13 acres (5.3 ha) of net area sown per plough.

Indigenous implements continue to gain favour of the cultivators as they can be made and repaired locally in villages. They are comparatively cheaper and within reach of the cultivators. These implements do not turn the sub-soil and as such the structure of the soil is not disturbed.

Under the present village conditions, they can be very easily worked. However, the prevailing labour conditions and high prices of draught animals are forcing the cultivators, particularly the big ones, to go in for mechanization; small cultivators, also have an inclination to accept such implements on hire, provided facilities exist. The paucity of workshops particularly in the rural areas comes in the way.

Tractor ploughing started after the year 1952. But even private tractors which could be used mostly for breaking the new soil are gradually disappearing as found uneconomical and also for the difficulties of workshops and repairs. Machine Tractor Station Scheme was started at Narsimhapur in 1958-59. It accounted for 2,423 acres of ploughing during the same year in the villages Gotegaon and Kuklah. Small machines like crushers, choppers, electric and diesel pumping-sets, expellers, winnowing-machines, threshing machines no doubt, find favour with those who can afford and have utility looking to the size of their holdings.

Seed

The experiments carried out on Government farms have proved the increase resulting from the use of improved seeds would range between 5 and 10 per cent. Attempts have, therefore, been made for evolving improved strains of seeds which would yield more and resist the diseases. The farm experiments, actually do not solve the problem unless the improved seeds are made available to cultivators. Therefore, with research efforts are continuing to multiply the seeds and to popularize them.

Rust has been the bane of agriculture of the District. Frequent visitations and devastations brought by this epidemic underlined the imperative need for evolving a seed which had the quality of immunity from rust and at the same time would give higher yield. The search for such a seed led to the evolution of Sharbati a term applied collectively to a number of Departmental wheats known as A. 115, A 113, A 112, etc., which are selections obtained from cross-bred wheats.

The Powarkheda Farm in Hoshangabad District was engaged in research since Juen, 1941, onwards in breeding strains resistant to black rust and suitable for black soil areas. After experimenting with Indian and exotic rust-resistant strains hybrids were evolved which have shown promising results. Among these, Hy. 8, 11, 12, 19, 38, 65 and 277 have been introduced by the Department as stated earlier.

In case of other crops also new and improved strains have been evolved. Improved seeds miltiplied on Government farms are not sufficient to meet the growing demand and they have to be further multiplied in successive stages through the agency of registered growers. 'A' class growers are required to multiply the foundation seed on farms under the supervision of Agriculture Department and sell the multiplied seed exclusively to the Department. They are supplied seed at market rates, free of transport cost and paid a premium of Rs. 2 per maund on the stock sold to the Department. The progeny of the foundation seed acquired from 'A' class growers is supplied to 'B' class seed growers who are also bound by similar condition. The seed procured from 'B' class growers is then distributed to the 'C' class growers at the prevailing market rates. The seed is not procured from 'C' class growers as in the last stage the purity of the seed becomes diluted to some extent.

The use of improved seeds by the cultivators of the District is in vogue since 1925. About 40 to 50 per cent of the cultivators use their own seed. Others meet their seed requirement from growers of improved seed and Government farms. Well-to-do farmers usually maintain their own supplies from the previous crop. Seeds which are being used by cultivators in the District are

listed below :--

Name of the Seed		Approximate Time of Adoption
1. Wheat :	A. 115	1925 to 1952
	A.O. 13	
	A.O. 90	
	A.O. 85	
	A.O. 98	
	I.P. 52	
	Pusa 4	
	Hy. 11	1952 upto date
	Hy. 65	
	Hy. 25	
	Hy. 271	
	C. 591	
2. Gram	A. D. 5. Yellow	1925
	D. 8 Gulabi	1930
	Maleeda	1930
	Maleeda Kalmlee	1930
3. Linseed :	E. B. 3	1930
	N. 55	1958-59
	R. 9	1958-59
	49	1958-59
4. Peas :	K. K. peas	1925
5. Jowar :	Saoner Selections	1925
	Ramkel ,,	1925
6. Paddy :	Salari ,,	1925
	E. B. 17	1935
	Nasik-carly	1925
	Chhattri	1935
	Nagkesar crossed	1945
7. Tur :	Hoshangabad Selection	1925
	Hyderabad	1950
	Red Tur Selection	1925
	White Tur Selection	1925

8. Sugarcane :	CO.	210	1930
		219	1930
		237	1930
		290	1930
	CO.	312	1940
		313	1940
	P. O. J.	28	1940
	E. K.	28	1940
	CO.	419	1950
		421	1950
		749	1960

Cultivators of the District are conscious of using good and improved seeds and seedlings recommended by the Department of Agriculture. Besides, they are also helped by the Demonstration Jamadars and Gram Sewaks who hold demonstrations to convince them of their utility.

Rotation of Crops

A majority of cultivators lured by the prospect of short-term gain are not aware of the fact that the raising of the same crop on the same soil year after year is likely to impoverish the soil resulting in progressive decrease in the yield. The practice to keep the land fallow in order to increase the fertility is followed to a small extent. However, it is much less than what it used to be before. All land appearing as fallow land is not wholly represented by resting fallow; there may be other reasons also, viz., negligence, lack of resources, disputes, shortage of labour, etc. Judicious rotation of crops is held as an important aspect of better farming. The sowing of mixed crops, i. e., wheat, gram, linseed has been considered sufficient to achieve the objective of maintaining fertility. However, some of the cultivators have the rotation of wheat-gram or batri or teora or three course rotation alternated with one *kharif* or a mixture of jowar, tur, moong or urd. The Agriculture Department has now recommended wheat, gram, wheat, jowar mixture. linseed or til with tur, i. e., a five course rotation. In *haveli* area rotation of wheat, linseed and gram or legumes is recommended. These are for heavy soils, for light, soils, millets, jowar mixture and early paddy are recommended.

Manures and Fertilizers

For the conservation of the fertility of the soil the utility of manuring the soil is now well-recognised by the cultivators. The awakening has come mostly through the development works carried out by the Development Blocks and the Agriculture Department by demonstrations and experiment. Experiments conducted on farms show that manuring, in a normal season gives 22, 14, 25 per cent increase in yield in case of rice, wheat and jowar, respectively.

Farm-yard manure, compost, to some extent green manure and the chemical fertilizers are the common modes of increasing the fertility of the soil. The animal-dropping, though a valuable manure, is not utilized to the full extent as it is mostly used as fuel. However, the Development Blocks in the District are making efforts to change this traditional practice. The Municipalities of Narsimhapur, Kareli, and Gotegaon compost the town refuge along with the night-soil and the ripe compost is sold to cultivators for manuring. In the rural areas the Development Blocks are laying emphasis on the digging of compost-pits and preparing the compost with refuge, dung, cattle urine, etc. Practical demonstrations in systematic composting are given and its advantages explained. Jana pada Sabhas and Gram Panchayats have taken interest in this scheme. The use of green manuring was initiated as long back as 1925. The main green manuring crops are sunn-hemp, *sesbania*, ipomea leaves, Kopergaon moong, *sawa* and *gulloo*. However, the progress achieved under the green manuring scheme is tardy. Its coverage may hardly be five to ten per cent.

Chemical fertilizers were introduced as early as 1925. They have now attracted the attention of the cultivators though their use is not extensive. In the beginning the use of chemical fertilizers was confined to a few tons only but now their consumption goes to wagon-loads. However, the increase in consumption is gradual. Previously their application was restricted to sugarcane and vegetables only. Now field crops of paddy, wheat, jowar, etc., are also receiving increasing doses of fertilizers.

Pests and Diseases

Like all other districts this District is also visited by pests and diseases. There are instances when many cultivators could not reap crops, for example, the black-rust attack of 1932 not only destroyed the wheat crop but also the linseed. Similarly, the brown rust attack of 1957-58 damaged the crops but its intensity was not severe as the rust-resistant seed was sown and the attack was a bit late in the season. In the same year the gram, tur, and teora crops were attacked by the caterpillar and the intensity was so severe that thousands of acres under these crops were completely destroyed. Protection measures of the Plant Protection Section were late to reach the affected area. The attack of tur pod-borer was once again severe in the year 1962-63, particularly in the Sainkheda Block. Thus, very often, one are the other insect pest or disease raises its ugly head in the District. Rust is the main disease which has been the relentless foe of the growers of wheat of the world. Sleeman in 1839 speaking of rust in the Central Provinces observed, "I have seen rich sheets of uninterrupted wheat cultivation for twenty miles by ten in the valley of the Narbudda so entirely destroyed by this disease that the people would not go to the cost of gathering one field in four."[1] Gram caterpillar is the serious pest of the District. It is sporadic in character and develops in cloudy weather.

A Howard and G. Howard, Wheat in India, p 90.

In order to combat pest and diseases the disease-resistant seed varieties are being distributed to the cultivators and seed treatment is advocated for guarding against seed-borne diseases. Besides, various insecticides and pesticides are sprayed over the crops as listed below :—

Crops	Diseases or Pests	Control Measures
Wheat	Sondh or Army Worm	B.H.C. 5% or 10%@ 20 lbs. per acre
	Smut	Uproot and burn the affected plants.
	Rust (3 types)	Resistant variety
Gram	Gram caterpillar	B.H.C. 5 to 10% @ 20 lbs. per acre
Peas	Powdery mildew	B.H.C. 5% or sulphur
Teora	Powdery mildew	B.H.C. treatment given (Not very effective)
Linseed	Rust	Rust-resistant variety
Jowar	Shoot-borer, stem-borer	Uproot and burn plants showing dead hearts (In case the affected area is small)
	Red spot of leaves Smut	Seed treatment with mercurial fungicides
Paddy	Grass-hopper	Hexadol or light trap
	Army worm	B.H.C. 10%@ 20 lbs. per acre
	Paddy gall stem fly	B.H.C. & light trap
	Paddy shoot-borer	-do-
	Rice hispa	-do-
Tur	Tur pod-borer	B.H.C. 10% 2 sprays from the early stage
	Tur plume moth	-do-
Chillies	Churda murda	Bordeaux mixture
Sugarcane	Shoot-borer Stem-borer	Kill the caterpillar and remove the dead hearts
	Sugarcane fly	Light trap and spraying with wettable D.D.T.
	Pyrilla, & Red-rot	Seed selection and treatment

No effective treatment is available for canker disease of lemon and other citrus fruits and foot-rot disease of papaya. For extirpating the various agricultural pests and diseases a Plant Protection Unit has been set up in the District. However, looking to the vast area under various crops the Plant Protection Unit has not been able to cover the entire District. As such, the scientific methods have not been tried on a large scale. Moreover, some of the protection

methods are beyond the means of poor cultivators holding small pieces of land. Diseases and pests are no doubt the enemies of the crops but some of the animals and the weeds do no less harm. Sometimes the damage caused by the animals is also sufficient to ruin a cultivator. Amongst animals, crops are usually damaged by pigs. Weeds which are common and injurious to crops are *dudhi*, *chandbel*, *kans*, *chhoti* and *badi gokharu* and *agia*.

District Agriculture Office

The office of the District Agricultural Officer was opened in the year 1956 with the reconstitution of Narsimhapur District. The District Agricultural Officer, now designated as Deputy Director of Agriculture, is helped by the field staff in demonstrating scientific methods of cultivation in the District. Besides, the Development Blocks in the District also help the cultivators in adopting better and scientific methods of cultivation. The extension agency consists of Agricultural Assistants, Demonstration Plots, and lectures, shows and exhibitions, fairs and crop competitions are the methods. For the improvement of agriculture inducements have been given to cultivators by granting concessions and subsidies in the loans granted under the Agriculturists' Loans Act and Land Improvement Loans Act. Thus, the Department of Agriculture has been engaged in introducing changes on the agricultural front, acquainting the farmer with the achievements of the science in the field of agriculture and enlisting their support and participation in this huge programme of agricultural improvement.

Crop Competitions

Crop competitions are organised to give incentive to cultivators for obtaining the higher and higher levels of agricultural production. Crop competition for the wheat crop was introduced in the Wheat Zone of the State. In the year 1959-60 the highest yield of 90 maunds (33.59 quintals) was achieved by Narbadanand of Gadarwara. Similarly, Poonam Chand Budholia of the village Kodia, Gopikishan Kabra of the village Kamti, Raghosing of the village Bohani, Ramjee Patel and Badriprasad of Golagaon secured 75 mds. (27.99 qtls.), 79-7-8 mds. (29.8 qtls.), 83 mds. (30.98 qtls.), 80 mds. (27.99 qtls.), 78 mds. (29.11 qtls.) of yield per acre, respectively, in the same year. In the Zonal Wheat Crop Competition of 1960-61, Narmada Prasad Upadhyaya of Gadarwara Tahsil obtained third position. He secured an yield of 90-30-0 mds. (33.87 qtls.) of wheat per acre.

Mention may also be made of the awards won by the District in All-India Crop Competition scheme. The District carried the Community Award of Rs. 10,000 in the year 1959-60 for high *kharif* production. Again, during 1960-61 the District received the Community Award of Rs. 10,000 for high *rabi* production and also the Rajya Kalash. This award is given to a district which in a particular year produces 15 per cent or more of *kharif* or *rabi* crops in comparison

with the average production of the three previous years. The district showing the best performance among all the districts of the State is the recipient of Rajya Kalash.

Agricultural Farms

The District has two agricultural farms. The farm at Narsimhapur was opened in the year 1958-59 in an area of 122.57 acres (49.60 ha). The area under cultivation in this farm is 114 acres (46.13 ha). The farm at Gadarwara was established in the year 1960-61. It occupies an area of 105 acres (42.49 ha) out of which 100 acres (40.47 ha) are under cultivation.

These two farms are seed multiplication farms where foundation seed of rust-resistant and improved strains of wheat, gram, peas and paddy is multiplied and distributed. A demonstration plot extending over an area of 10 acres (4.05 ha) is functioning at Gotegaon since 1958-59. Besides, a station garden was also established in theDistrict in the year 1959-60. It covers an area of five acres and serves as a nursery for supplying fruit plants.

Along with these institutions the agricultural school at Bohani in Gadarwara Tahsil has its own farms and experimental plots. This farm is also utilized for seed multiplication.

Agricultural Fairs

The fair held at Barman, on the banks of the river Narmada, at a distance of 18 miles from Narsimhapur is more than of local importance. It attracts visitors from other districts as well, viz., Sagar, Chhindwara Hoshangabad and Jabalpur. Other fairs take place at Jhonteshwar (in Gotegaon Block), Midhwari (near Bohani Railway Station), and Rudra Pratap Samadhi at Manegaon. These three are of local importance.

Co-operation in Agriculture

The development of agriculture in the District is being envisaged not only through demonstrations, researches and experiments, improved seeds, manures and fertilizers. etc., but also through co-operative farming. The adoption of the improved methods of cultivation which entail considerable cost appears to be a utopia in the present economic set-up of the agriculturists for which the total size of holdings and their fragmentation and scatteredness constitute an important reason. As has already been stated the mechanization of farms, adoption of modern plant protection measures and processing of agricultural produce, are clearly out of the reach of an average cultivator. These objectives as the government and the development agencies envisage are to be achieved through co-operatives. These co-operatives are to be formed not only in the sector of

production but also in the field of distribution, i.e., in marketing of produce and obtaining fair return for the labour expended on the fields. In the sphere of co-operation this District, like others has also gone ahead. In the District there were 4 Co-operative Central Marketing Societies, 6 Joint Farming Societies, 16 Better Farming and 188 Service Co-operative Societies as on the 30th June, 1963. The first Co-operative Central Marketing Society, was registered on the 23rd August, 1957. These societies in all had 1,518 members and had a total paid-up capital of Rs. 1,18,075 and working capital to the tune of Rs. 7,59,329; they earned a profit of Rs. 16,565. The first Joint Farming Society was registered on the 5th December, 1962. These societies with a membership of 123 persons had a paid-up capital of Rs. 13,455 and a total working capital of Rs. 59,485. However, the Joint Farming Societies could not earn much profit. The 16 Better Farming Societies had a membership of 1,364 with paid-up and working capital of Rs. 91,914 and Rs. 4,84,249, respectively. These Societies earned a profit of Rs. 11,580. The Service Co-operative Societies were made up of 8,921 members working on Rs. 3,25,764 as paid-up capital, and Rs. 24,27,842 as working capital. The Societies earned a profit of Rs. 50,336.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The livestock and poultry population of the District has been given in Appen.—A.

It indicates the livestock position of the District as revealed at the two livestock censuses of 1956 and 1961. The enumeration in 1961 registered an increase of 8 per cent in the number of livestock over the previous Census. Further the number of cattle increased by 10 per cent while the number of buffaloes decreased by 2 per cent. A significant fact which the Table reveals is that there is appreciable decrease in the number of milch cattle and buffaloes.

There is no recognised breed of cattle in the District. Mixed *malvi* strain is generally found. In *haveli* tract *malvi* bullocks are imported from Malwa as the local supply is insufficient. In the hilly tract the breed is usually of small and medium size.

A pair of good bullocks costs any where between Rs. 600 and Rs. 1,000. The price of a milch-cow may vary from Rs. 150 to Rs. 300.

The average working life of bullocks is 8 to 10 years. The scrub-bulls are castrated at an average age of three years

Like cattle, there is no recognized breed of buffaloes. The average yield of milk per buffalo in the District comes to 2½ litres – 5 litres per day. The buffaloes are kept for milk, ghee and *khoa*. *Khoa* of village Usari in Narsimhapur Tahsil is reputed to be the best in the District. The price of a milch she-buffalo

is Rs. 250 to Rs. 500. Young he-buffaloes are exported to Chhattisgarh area *Murrah* buffalo-bulls have been introduced for breeding purposes. The practice of keeping good horses by big landlords has practically vanished. This has naturally, resulted in their decrease. Medium sized pack-ponies in the villages and *tonga* ponies in towns are usually found.

Grazing and Fodder

Village proprietors, before the abolition of *malguzari* system, used to have large grass reserves as *birs*. Such *birs*, as per instruction of the Revenue Department were recorded as old fallows. On the abolition of proprietary rights these lands vested in the State. Some of the proprietors who had home-farms were given 10 per cent of the area of their home-farms out of the said fallow lands. Thus, the major portion of *birs* reserved for fodder crops has been lost. Therefore, the area of fodder crops has decreased considerably. Looking to the population of the cattle, the grazing land available is not sufficient. In the *haveli* tract during monsoon the working cattle are sent to forest area for grazing where they are kept for five to six months. During the quinquennium ending 1960-61 the average grazing area comprising culturable waste, permanent pastures and grazing lands and forests open to grazing was 3,16,544 acres, which though is one-fourth of the total area of the District, yet the grazing land available per head of bovine population comes to 0.88 acre. If the entire livestock is taken into consideration the land available for grazing per head of livestock population is further reduced to 0.77 acre against the State average of 1.28 acres. Evidently, such a small area with improper conservation and protection cannot meet the requirements.

Most of the land available for cultivation is fertile and is kept engaged in cultivation of wheat and other crops. Cultivators can hardly afford the cultivation of fodder crops, and for this reason probably the area under fodder crops is negligible. The quinquennial average, i. e., for the period 1956-57 to 1960-61 of area under fodder crops comes to only 489 acres which works out to 0.1 per cent of the average cropped area during the same period. This makes available an acre of land to 1,000 bovine population. Fodder crops are usually grown by big cultivators. Some progressive and educated cultivators grow improved grasses such as Barseem, G 73, Napier, etc. These improved varieties were introduced in the District in the year 1950 by a few cultivators. The Development Blocks are also making efforts to increase the quality and quantity of fodder in the District.

Kel, mushel, baber, gundrai, gunhaiya, and *dub* are the local grasses. *Kel* and *mushel* are said to be the best grasses and are also very much relished by the cattle. *Gunhaiya* and *kel* are also converted into hay. Now attempts are being made to introduce high yielding and nutritious grasses. During the First and the Second Plan periods there was no appreciable increase in the acreage of

improved grasses. During the Third Plan period more emphasis was laid on growing improved grasses. During the year 1963-64 the total area under improved grasses was 432 acres (175 ha).

Besides grass, jowar *kadbi*, paddy straw, wheat bran and crop residues are used as fodder for cattle. Green grass is available in sufficient quantity in later part of rainy season and also in winter. Dried grass, jowar stalks and straw are used as fodder during the later part of the winter and in hot weather. Straw of leguminous *rabi* crops and wheat and wheat husk *(bhusa)* are used in other parts of the year. The scarcity of fodder is generally felt in later part of summer which is met to some extent by the *bhusa* of wheat and tur which is readily available on account of the arrival of the new crop. Cows and buffaloes in milk are fed with straw, grasses and concentrates, i.e., oil cakes of til, and groundnut, and *chuni* of gram, tur, masur and teora. During *rabi* season green teora is also fed to these animals. Cattle at work are given roughage, concentrates, *bhusa* and grass. When cattle are out of milk or work, they are generally left on grazing and are given straw.

Sheep and Goat Breeding

Sheep and goat found in the District are of non-descript type. Goats are maintained for milk and meat. Goats are also sent to big cities for slaughter. Goats yield 1-1½ lbs. of milk per day. Sheep are reared for flesh and wool. They yield wool only once in a year. About 1½ kg. of wool is obtained from one sheep per shearing.

Animal Diseases and Hospitals

Rinderpest, haemorrhagic septicaemia, black quarter, foot and mouth and anthrax are the common cattle diseases. The incidence of these diseases is now progressively on the decline because of timely prophylactic vaccinations and other control measures.

In the areas far away from veterinary institutions the villagers treat these diseases with local shrubs and herbs. The local treatment is effective to some extent in case of diseases of non-contagious nature. With the development of veterinary science and the facilities available, these diseases have been reduced to considerable extent. Under the Rinderpest Eradication Programme 2,32,000 animals were vaccinated in the District during the year 1960-61 and since then no cases of out-break of rinderpest have been reported.

On receipt of report of an out-break of epidemic the affected area is immediately attended by a Veterinary Assistant Surgeon of the nearest Hospital. Necessary control measures are taken by treatment and segregation of ailing cases and preventive inoculations are given in affected and surrounding villages.

The first veterinary hospital of the District was established at Narsimhapur as long back as the year 1881. Six years later, i.e., in 1887, another veterinary hospital was started at Gadarwara. No progress in this direction was made till India attained Independence and the planning era was ushered in. The launching of the Five Year Plans saw the establishment of such institutions in quick succession. Veterinary hospitals were set up at Gotegaon in 1956-57, at Chawarpatha and Salichauka in 1959-60 and at Kareli and Sihora in 1962-63. With a view to catering to the needs of the far-away and remote places, outlying dispensaries were started at Narwara (1951), Amgaon (1951-52), Basuriya (1951-52), Sainkheda (1952-53), Panari (1952–53), Dangidhana (1959-60), Mungwani (1959-60), Barehta (1959-60), Shrinagar (1960-61), Bohani (1960-61), Nayagaon (1960-61), Surwani (1961-62) and Chichli (1961-62). A mobile veterinary unit was provided at Narsimhapur in 1959-60 for the speedy control of out-breaks of epidemics and extending veterinary aid to villages. On an average the District has one veterinary hospital per 58,467 cattle and one outlying veterinary dispensary for 31,460 animals.

Measures to Improve Quality of Breed

Prior to Independence some breeding bulls were imported under "Viceroy Scheme" for improving the local breed but the scheme was subsequently dropped.

The work of upgrading the local cattle was taken up by the Veterinary Department of the State from the year 1949-50 in the selected pockets of the District by the formation of key village centres. The first two centres were established in that year at Imaliya and Batesra. Two more centres were opened in 1951-52 at Rampura and Bitli. *Hariyana* bulls have been introduced at these centres. Since the beginning of the Second Five Year Plan work has been intensified by supplying *Hariyana* bulls on subsidy basis to Gram Panchayats and to individual cultivators In 1962-63, there were 125 *Hariyana* cow-bulls and 14 buffalo-bulls in the District. As a result, marked improvement has been noticed in the local stock. Milk yield has also shown increase.

Artificial insemination is another method of upgrading the livestock which obviates the necessity of maintaining good quality bulls. The first artificial insemination unit was established at Gotegaon in 1959-60. Subsequently, such units were started at Gadarwara (1959-60), Narsimhapur (1960-61) and Kareli (1961-62).

The first cattle breeding extension unit in the District was started at Dangidhana in 1960-61. More units were added at Salichauka, Chawarpatha and Mungwani in 1961-62 and Suatalai, Chichli and Narwara in 1962-63.

A quarantine station has been functioning at Tendukheda on the border of Raisen District since 1938-39 for preventing the ingress of cattle diseases.

One small *gosadan* is being run by Janapada Sabha, Narsimhapur, at Amanala (Bachai) since 1959-60. Useless, maimed and old cattle are collected and sent to the *gosadan* for maintenance.

Cattle Markets

Cattle markets are held at six places in the District at Kondiya, Sainkheda, Tendukheda in Gadarwara Tahsil and at Dangidhana, Kareli, and Gotegaon in Narsimhapur Tahsil. All the markets are being held since a long time. About 20,000 animals are sold at these markets every year.

Poultry Farming

The Livestock Census, 1961, indicates that the poultry registered an increase of 68 per cent over the enumeration done in 1956. The increase, obviously an appreciable one, is the result of the developmental activities. Of the total fowls enumerated in 1961 Census 12,332 are hens, 5,209 cocks and 21,822 chickens. The majority of the stock is *deshi*. As against 38,586 *deshi* fowls the improved birds numbered only 777. The average egg production of *deshi* hen is 30 to 40 per year. Steps were taken in the First Five Year Plan for upgrading indigenous breed by introducing White-Leghorn cocks in the Blocks. White-Leghorn fowls were, however, first introduced in the District during the year 1950-51. One Poultry Unit was established in the Veterinary Hospital, Narsimhapur, during the same year. In the Second Five Year Plan further steps were taken for upgrading the breed when one District Poultry Unit was opened at Gotegaon in 1960-61 with White-Leghorn birds. Back-yard poultry units were also encouraged and till 1962-63 the District had 71 such units.

Ranikhet, fowlpox, spirochaetosis, and other parasitic diseases are common poultry diseases. These diseases, though, not fully eradicated yet have lost much of their virulence as a result of preventive inoculations.

Fisheries

The important fish species found in the District are *Barbus tor*, *Labeo rohita*, *Wallago attu*, *Catla catla*, *Cirrhina mrigala*, *Ophiocephalus* and *barbus spp*. *Catla catla*, *Labeo rohita* and *Cirrhina mrigala* are found all the year round. *Barbus tor* and *Ophiocephalus* flourish during January to June. Ever since the establishment of the fisheries office at Narsimhapur in January, 1962, concerted efforts are being made to develop fisheries on planned and scientific lines. The Fisheries Department has taken up pisciculture in Nagwara tank with 73 acres (30 ha) of water from the year 1963. Private parties are using Bagaspur tank 8 acres (3 ha) and Narsimhapur tank 12 acres (5 ha) for fisheries develoment work. Pond culture in fact offers considerable scope for pisciculture. The Narmada and its tributaries are other potential areas of development. The scheme for collection of fingerlings of *mahaseer* from the river Narmada has already been started in the year 1962.

Development of pisciculture is being encouraged by giving various facilities and inducements to private parties and co-operative societies. Such steps include supply of pure breeds of carps, free technical advice, loans and subsidies to fishermen for repair of tanks, purchase of fish seed, nets, boats and other equipment.

FORESTRY

The Narsimhapur Forest Division has come into existence, rather revived after half a century, with effect from the 1st December, 1962. The boundaries of the Division are co-terminus with the boundaries of Narsimhapur Civil District. The Division comes under the Conservator of Forests, Central Circle, Jabalpur. The forests of the Division have seen many administrative changes.

According to land records statistics of the District for the year 1962-63, out of the total area of 12,68,803 acres, forests account for 3,49,918 acres, or 27.6 per cent of the total area.

The Narsimhapur Forest Division has been divided into four ranges for management. The details of area of Reserved and Protected forests in each range are given below :—

S. No.	Name of Range	Headquarters	Area (In Sq. Miles)		
			Reserved Forests	Protected Forests	Total Forests
.	Narsimhapur	Narsimhapur	69.12 Sq. kms. (179.02)	61.10 (158.25)	130.32 (337.27)
2.	Gotegaon	Gotegaon	42.90 Sq. kms. (111.11)	37.42 (96.92)	80.32 (208.03)
3.	Richhai	Barman	63.31 Sq. kms. (163.97)	113.02 (292.72)	176.33 (456.69)
4.	Khairi	Salichauka Road	78.29 Sq. kms. (202.77)	69.30 (179.48)	147.59 (382.25)
			253.62 Sq. kms. (656.87)	280.84 (727.37)	534.46 (1,384.24)

It has been proposed to split up Narsimhapur and Khairi Ranges and form an additional range with headquarters at Kareli.

Plantations

Plantations of teak, cashew, and eucalyptus have been raised over an area

of 788.25 acres (319 ha) as given below :—

Name of Range	Year of Formation	Species Raised	Total Area of Plantations (in acres)
Narsimhapur	1959	Teak and cashew	145
- do -	1960	Teak, cashew and sissoo	100
- do -	1961	Teak	100
- do -	1962	- do -	128
- do -	1963	Teak and eucalyptus	40
Gotegaon	1962	Teak	130
- do -	1962	- do -	100
Khairi	1960	- do -	5
- do -	1961	- do -	10
- do -	1962	- do -	30

Rehabilitation of Degraded Forests

Rehabilitation work in degraded forests has been carried out in the Ex-Prorietary forests. Gap planting has been done over an area of about 60 acres (24 ha) in 1961-62 and 230 acres (93 ha) in 1962-63. Further work is in progress.

Consolidation, Demarcation, Reservation and Management of Forests

Out of the 280.84 sq. miles (727.4 sq. kms.) of Protected forests, 259 sq. miles (670.7 sq. kms.) have been surveyed and 341 miles 5 furlongs (248.8 kms.) demarcated. Further work is in progress.

Farm Forestry

Fuel-cum-fodder plantations over 80 acres (32 ha) have been raised in Gotegaon Development Block during the year 1962-63.

FLOODS, FAMINES AND DROUGHTS

Generally the District is not visited by frequent calamities as a result of drought. The *haveli* area and its surroundig fields which consist of about one-third of the area of the District give a high degree of stability and security to the rest of the District, which is not so fortunate. The soils of the *haveli* area have a high retentive capacity and a high capillary action due to which a *rabi* crop is carried to maturity even in years of scanty rainfall as also in the absence of winter rains.

The District suffered from a continuous period of a poor crops from 1893 to 1900 due to partial failure of rains. The situation deteriorated to such an

extent that famine conditions were faced during the years 1896-97 and 1899-1900. During this period, it is reported, that the rural population migrated from certain areas leaving their hearths and homes in search of work and food.

The influenza epidemic of 1918-1919 was very widespread and took a heavy toll of human lives in the District This also adversely affected the agricultural and rural life of the District. There were cases in which the entire families were wiped out. This calamity was followed by another calamity, the famine of 1920-21. Though the District suffered as a result of this famine yet the incidence was not severe.

This District suffered from a severe crop damage due to frost in the year 1928. Liberal taccavi and bank loans had to be arranged to tide over the crisis. The cold wave affected the low-lying areas of the District. Tur as well as tender legume crops were damaged considerably.

In the year 1931 black-rust attacked the wheat crop and many cultivators could not even harvest it. The linseed crop was also affected. Crop failures of moderate intensity occurred in the following years but they were localised and cultivators recouped the losses sustained with comparative ease.

In the year 1957-58 the wheat crop was attacked by brown-rust. The attack was comparatively less severe. By this time rust-resistant wheat varieties had been introduced in many villages of the District and the incidence also appeared somewhat late in the season. In the same year the gram caterpillar invaded gram, tur and teora. The pest appeared in such a virulent form that the crop on thousands of acres was completely destroyed.

Rust of wheat and caterpillar of gram, wheat, and tur have caused continuous anxiety to the cultivators. The incidence increases in a season of inclement weather followed by the period of cloudy and sultry weather conditions

The problem of rust is now nearly under control as 80 per cent of the wheat area is charged with the rust-resistant wheat Hy. 65 and other improved varieties.

The incidence of tur pod-borer was severe in the year 1962-63, particularly in Sainkheda Block. One village Toomra alone suffered a loss of over 500 acres (202 ha) of tur crop due to this borer.

For tiding over drought years the Government has constructed tanks and tube-wells in this District, besides giving taccavi to individuals for irrigation wells. These works may be taken as an attempt towards protecting crops and minimising famine condition in the District. Besides a number of measures, detailed in the foregoing pages of this chapter, have been taken with a view to providing stability to agriculture and keeping the evil effects of droughts at bay.

Floods

Most severe floods in the river Narmada were experienced by this District in the year 1926 which uprooted a large population as well as damaged crops on thousands of acres. The cattle population also could not escape from the fury of these devastating floods. In the floods of 1926 as many as 70 villages were affected causing loss of grain, houses and household effects. The loss then was estimated over a lakh of rupees. The cultivators were hard hit and could not recoup their losses for the following year or two. The damage suffered by them in the shape of house collapses, cattle losses, the rotting of grains in *bandas* and containers, the losses of clothing and utensils are still rememberd by the elders. Entire crops of the fields were lost and quite a number of them were washed away so much so that they could not support a good crop for the coming two, and in some cases three seasons. In some areas, however, gram was resown. Thus, these scouring floods brought unprecedented havoc, misery and devastation and left tremendous impact on the rural life. Even now when the flood level marks are seen by the persons they only wonder if such high flood could be possible.

Since then there have been floods of minor intensity and did not cause such a severe damage to the agricultural and rural population of the District. The Narmada and the Tawa rivers are being harnessed for irrigation purposes. One major scheme at Bargi will be impounding surplus flood waters into a big reservoir, thereby reducing the intensity and ravages of floods as also providing irrigation for productive purposes. Another scheme is also contemplated to utilize the waters of the Sher and the Macharewa rivers for diverting the rain water for productive purposes.

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

Population Dependent on Industries

In the year 1901 the total population of the District was 3,15,518. Sixty-two per cent of this population was supported by pasture and agriculture. In the year 1961, i.e., after 60 years, the total population had increased to 4,12,406. The population of "workers" as distinguished from "dependents" in all the different occupations formed 46.30 per cent of the total population; and the percentage of "workers" in agriculture to the total "workers" formed 73.54 per cent. This shows that even excluding the category of "dependents", with the growing population in the District the percentage of persons depending on agriculture for their livelihood had increased. The percentage of "workers", in household and manufacturing other than household industries in the year 1961 happened to be 8.13 per cent of the total population of "workers". In mining, quarrying and livestock, the percentage of "workers" was 2.13 of total "workers". These figures show that it is only a fraction of the total population which is dependent for its livelihood on industries and that, over a period of half a century and more, dependence of the population for its sustenance on the soil did not diminish, but increased with increasing population.

Old-Time Industries

Cotton spinning and weaving, *dal*-milling, spinning of *kosa* silk, manufacturing of lac and glass bangles, iron-work, sunn-hemp work, making of ropes, brooms, mats and baskets of bamboo, cart-wheels, wooden furniture, brass utensils, manufacture of combs, leather shoes, lime industry, etc., are some of the important old industries in the District.

Cotton Spinning and Weaving

In the industrial set-up of the District, cotton spinning and weaving occupied an important place. Cotton was grown on a very large-scale and, therefore, it used to be exported to Mirjapur during the early British rule from 1817 to 1870. But with the starting of railway line, the export of cotton to

Mirjapur ceased. Cotton began to be exported to Bombay. After 1900, three ginning factories at Gadarwara, Kareli and Gotegaon were started. The cotton industry supported about 15,000 persons in 1901, as against 20,000 in 1891. The decrease was principally among cotton spinners and cleaners, and was due to the increased imports of Indian mill-spun thread and the opening of ginning factories in the adjoining districts to which the raw cotton was sent to be ginned. In numerical strength, the industry ranked ninth among the districts of the Central Provinces in 1901. The ginning factories were opened after 1901. It is reported that some 3,000 to 4,000 maunds of Indian thread was then imported annually from the Mills at Bombay and Jabalpur. Coarse thread was spun for cart covers, quilts, carpets and the *newar*-cloth used for the seats of beds, but thread for weaving cloth was practically all imported. The principal centre of cotton-weaving industry was Gadarwara, while Singhpur and Amgaon had also a considerable number of weavers. Koris, Katias and Mehras were weaving coarse cloth and Kostis the finer qualities.

The porduction of cotton began to decrease after 1918, till it came to practically nothing and the ginning factories were demolished about the beginning of the Second World War.

Thousands of Katia, Kori, Kosti, Mehra men and women worked as spinners of cotton thread and as weavers in their houses. The weavers got their thread from Banias, according to the system of advances. The majorty of the weavers were in very poor circumstances. When the supply of mill cloth from Manchester and then from Bombay, Ahmedabad and Nagpur increased, the spinning and weaving business of these castes practically ceased. The Kosti weavers have migrated to Bombay, Ahmedabad and Indore cities. Only a few remained to work as labourers in the District. Katia, Kori and Mehra have taken to agriculture and other labour. In the past the profession of weaving was confined to certain castes. These were definite weaving castes like Koris, Chadar, kostis Momins, and Mehras. In the year 1931, the year from which Narsimhapur as the separate administrative unit ceased to exist, the number of pesrons having a principal occupation of cotton-spinning, sizing and weaving was 994.

Dyeing Industry

Dyeing of cloth, along with cotton spinning and weaving was a flourishing industry. Dyeing was carried in all big villages and towns; but Gadarwara, Singhpur, Amgaon, Narsimhapur, Paloha and Shahpur were prominent places. The dyeing industry of Gadarwara was formerly important and the *razais*, bed-cloth, etc., woven and dyed here were sent to Jabalpur, Nagpur and Berar. The castes engaged in dyeing were the Rangrezs (Muslim dyers) who used indigo and other indigenous agents besides, imported dyes, and the Chhipas

(Hindu dyers) who dyed and printed cloth with red alizarine dye and other agents. A few Khatris (Hindu dyers) were engaged in the industry at Narsimhapur. Now the business has become extinct excepting for a few families, who are doing other petty business. Even in the year 1931 the number of persons following this as their principal occupation was as low as 194 only.

Kosa Silk Industry

Kosa silk-cocoons used to be produced in the *malguzari* shrub jungles and forests by Dhimars. The Kosti used to spin and weave *kosa* cloth. Narsimhapur and Kandeli were the important places for woven *tasar* or *kosa* silk, but it was of very inferior qualitiy. This industry also vanished.

Wool Industry

Manufacture of coarse country blankets was done out of the wool gathered from the sheep reared locally by the Gadaria or shepherd caste. Chawarpatha and Khamaria were the important places for this industry.

Lac Industry

Lac used to be produced on a large scale from *malguzari* forest trees of *kosam* and *palas*. Rajihars and Patwas were mainly engaged in the production and sale of lac. The Lakheras, residing in big villages and towns of the District made lac bangles, which were worn at marriages and during the month of *Shrawan*, and also other ornaments and *chapetas* or wooden cubes covered with lac, which were used as play-things during the month of *Shrawan*. This industry also suffered in competition with glass and plastic bangles.

Gold and Silver Work

Workers in gold and silver, known as Sonars numbered a few hundred in the District, who pursued this craft on a cottage industry basis since olden times. In 1901, the District had over 3,000 gold and silver workers, the industry being numerically the seventh highest in the Province. Most of the villages of any size had at least one or two houses of Sonars and in the towns and large villages, there were more of them. Gold ornaments were usually made hollow and filled with lac and frequently had bases of silver. Sometimes, precious stones were set in the nose-rings of women and finger-rings of men. Silver ornaments were usually made by hammering and no great skill is shown in their manufacture.

According to the Census of 1931 there were 795 persons in the District whose principal occupation was making of jewellery and ornaments. With the promulgation of Gold Control Order, 1963, this industry received a set-back and Sonars are now changing their mode of living and leaving this business.

Brass Utensils Industry

Manufacture of brass utensils was also practised in the District. Chichli and Nayakheda villages were associated with this industry since long. The brass vessels are more commonly used than those made either of copper or bell-metal. The workmanship of these products at Chichli is said to be of superior quality. The manufacture of brass utensils had ceased in villages Nayakheda and Chougan, which are now deserted. The brass-working industry is still being carried on at Chichli village.

Iron-Works

Cottage establishment of village Lohar or Blacksmith, manufacturing agricultural implements and mending them, is as old as our rural set-up. Almost each village has its Lohar or Blacksmith, who works in iron. There was formerly a considerable iron working industry at Tendukheda and the articles made here had a high reputation. But since the production of iron from mines at Tendukheda and Dilheri has almost ceased, the iron-workers have also fallen on evil days and industry as such is now insignificant on account of the import of foreign iron and non-availability of free charcoal, which they used to get from *malguzari* forests, this industry suffered extinction. Previously, the iron produced in Dilheri forest was used for the manufacture of guns for the Chauragarh fort and implements.

The Blacksmiths and other workers in iron and makers of implements in 1931 numbered 874. The industry on a cottage scale still exists mostly in rural areas.

Carpentry Works

Like village Lohars, the village Carpenter is also a part and parcel of village economy. The manufacturing activities of the carpenters are limited to the manufacture of wooden agricultural implements, bullock carts, etc., and repairing them. They also used to prepare furniture of a sort from wood and timber taken out of the *malguzari* forests, generally free. Now on account of restrictions imposed by the State Government on indiscriminate felling and extraction of timber from the Ex-Proprietary forests and enforcement of Nistar rules, this business has suffered a set-back. The cultivators have to get cart-wheels prepared by supplying their wood and timber.

Leather Industry

Leather industry is also an old one. The Chamars in the District prepare shoes and sell them. They are allowed to remove skin from dead animals free of payment. Sometimes they even demand payment for removal of dead animals. Skin fetches better price and therefore, Chamars sell skins. The persons

engaged in the industry are village Chamars catering to the local needs of the population. But this industry declined, partly because of the demand for raw hides for export, and partly due to the competition from machine-made leather-goods. The result was that the number of cobblers and other workers in leather goods including tanners is declining from day to day.

Lime Industry

There was limestone burning industry in several villages, but it has suffered a set-back after the year 1951 on abolition of proprietary rights.

The lime kilns' burners do not get cheap wood for burning limestone as during *malguzari* system. The charges of the State Government for wood and limestone are heavy for the local people. Now they purchase Katni lime.

Pottery Industry

Earthen pots for cooking and storing water are manufactured by the village potter, known as *Kumhar*. In the year 1931, the number of persons having principal occupation of potters and makers of earthen ware in the District was 477. Cottage establishment of a *Kumhar* is a regular feature of the village set-up.

Other Industries

Sunn-hemp has been grown in the District from times immemorial. Big bags for carts called pals were manufactured out of it and sold for Rs. 50 each. Matting cloth called *patties* was also prepared of the sunn-hemp. Ropes for cattle and carts are made throughout the District. Fibres of palm tree, *chheola* tree, *amari* and *babar* grass were also used on a large-scale in villages and towns for making ropes. But now this business has dwindled to a cottage scale, due to the import of fiber and manila ropes from outside. Bharias, a hill tribe of Gadarwara Tahsil manufacture dusting brooms out of palm leaves, mats of bamboo and ropes of *mahul* creeper fibres. Their business is not so prosperous as before on account of control on material used by them by the State Government. Basors of the District, have been preparing bamboo baskets and mats since long. This has become the hereditary cottage industry of Basor caste. Similarly, Kuchabandhias formerly used to prepare mats of palm leaves for sitting and sleeping purposes and *pater* or *laden* which were used by the cultivators as protection against rains. Similarly, Ladhia Chamars used to prepare riddles for shifting and separating grains from the reeds of *barru* grass. Now they have given up this business.

Besides these industries, combs were manufactured on a small-scale at Barha and Basuria villages, but this business is facing extinction due to outside competition of plastic and rubber combs, which are of better designs and cheaper-

too. Similarly *aal* a dye-plant was cultivated in the light soil of the District by Kachhis, called *Alias*, but they left *aal* production due to the availability of aniline colours, and they are now working as petty cultivators or labourers.

The reasons for the decline of these old-time industries in the District are not far to seek. None of these industries was, except brass utensils at Chichli, in a floursning stage. They were mostly village industries based on locally available raw materials, which are now found in the rural areas throughout India, subsisting on the patronage of village communities. As better road and rail communication facilities brought cheaper and better machine-made goods to the centres, where these industries were carried on, the local manufacturers, practising their ancestral trade and following the old manufacturing techniques had to give way. Thus for example, better and cheaper mill-made cloth ruined the handloom spinning and weaving industry. Leather goods like shoes, etc., manufactured in the big factories in attractive designs forced the urban Mochi out of his occupation. Plastic and transparent glass bangles lured the women folk to give up their crude glass and lac bangles. Plastic or rubber combs have replaced the crude wooden and horn combs. Due to transport facilities the lime industry ceased and people preferred to have Katni lime. Thus, the better and cheaper machine-made goods, brought to the doors of the consumers through increased road and rail communications, changed the significance of old-time industries in the District.

The village Blacksmiths, Potters, Carpenters, and Mochis, who were the prime movers, as it were, in the old-time industrial set-up of the District, now continue to drudge in the rural areas of the District as elsewhere in the Country.

POWER

The industrial development of a particular tract or region is dependent among other things, on the availability of cheap motive power, i.e., electricity. In this respect the conditions in the District were not happy till recently, and it was only in the year 1955 that a small power house was started at Narsimhapur to supply electricity to Narsimhapur town. Later, under the Scheme known as "Thirtyseven Towns Development Scheme", sanctioned by the Madhya Pradesh Government, Kareli and Gadarwara towns of the District happened to be selected. Kareli being centrally situated it was selected for the establishment of a power house for the District. The power house at Kareli was established in the year 1955, with an installed capacity of 264 k. w. Currently, the installed capacity of the power house has been stated to be 764 k. w. Narsimhapur and Gadarwara were planned to be fed by high tension lines. Thus, by the middle of 1956, all these three places in the District happened to get electricity.

The diesel power station was commissioned in the year 1959 at Gotegaon, with an installed capacity of 116 k. w.

The factory industries, like *dal* mills, flour mills, oil and saw-mills, located at Narsimhapur, Gadarwara, Kareli and Gotegaon are being worked on electric power.

The consumption of power for industrial purposes from Kareli Power Station was.

(In k. w. Hrs.)

Year	No. of consumers	Industrial power low and medium voltage
1959-60	1,330	2,36,418
1960-61	1,554	2,73,051
1961-62	1,796	3,17,133
1962-63	1.993	3,75,225
1963-64	2,257	3,90,065
1964-65	2,514	4,16,448

The above figures indicate continuous increase in the number of consumers of elec'ricity in general as also increasing use of electricity for industrial purpose.

The working of the Gotegaon Power Station can be seen from the following figures.

(In k. w. Hrs.)

Year	No. of consumers	Industrial power low and medium voltage
1959-60	117	—
1960-61	155	80
1961-62	192	196
1962-63	225	237
1963-64	261	2,250
1964-65	305	32,270

Increase in the number of consumers in general as well as the increasing use of electricity as a motive power for industries year to year is quite significant in case of Gotegaon Power Station also.

Kareli and Gotegaon power stations were closed on the 1st August, 1965 and the 2nd November, 1963, respectively. After the closure of these power stations power supply from Amarkantak Grid was started to Kareli from the date of the closure. The Gotegaon power station was, however, being fed from Jabalpur during the period November, 1963 to February, 1965 i. e., till it was connected to Amarkantak Grid. There are now four distribution centres in the District, viz., Kareli, Narsimhapur, Gadarwara and Gotegaon.

The places which are getting electrcity in the District are Dhoopgarh, Kathotia, Kareli Basti, Bhugwara, Mohad, Amgaon, Karapgaon, Batesra, Nargi, Kondia and Bohani. In the year 1963-64 and 1964-65 Sainkheda and Chichli villages, respectively were electrified. In the year 1965 Salichouka, Paloha, Sihora, Singhpur and Ronsara villages in the District were also electrified.

INDUSTRIES AND MANUFACTURES

Mining

References to the existence of two important minerals viz., coal and iron, the former at Mohpani and the latter at Tendukheda in the District appear in the earlier Gazetteer. The coal mine was worked by the Nerbudda Coal and Iron Company formed in the year 1860. Mining at Tendukheda was carried on by local Lohars. In the year 1904, the Nerbudda Coal and Iron Company disposed of its property to the then Great Indian Peninsula Railway who took over the working of the mines. The working of Mohpani mines did not prove profitable at any time and hence it was abandoned. The mines now lie flooded. Similarly, by the year 1900 the mining of iron ore was almost extinct. The decay of this mining industry was mainly attributed to the competition of imported iron and not due to the exhaustion of the deposits.

According to the survey of industries in the District conducted by the Department of Industries in September, 1962, the minerals found in the District are reported to be bauxite, dolomite, quartz, soapstone, fireclay, sillica, as also red brown and yellow ochre. The total area under all these different minerals in the District was reported to be 3,885.20 acres, out of which only 347 acres was given on lease to different parties for extraction of minerals. This shows that the exploitation of these minerals by the private parties has not been found profitable. In the year 1964, geological survey was conducted near village Dilhera of Narsimhapur Tahsil. The result of this survey was not found satisfactory.

The total number of mines and quarries in the District under different minerals as reported in the year 1964 was 8 and 33, respectively. The location of mines in the District is as under.

Name of the Mineral	Location
Coal	Richhai, Gadarwara Tahsil
Soapstone	Chandlone. Narsimhapur Tahsil
Soapstone, Dolomite	- do -
Soapstone, Steatite	- do -
Soapstone, Dolomite	Keolari, Narsimhapur Tahsil
Fire-clay, White-clay	Kenkra, - do -
Fire-clay, White-clay	Deonagar - do -
Clay	Bachai - do -

From amongst the 33 quarries, seven are of clay, eight of sand, one of murram and 17 of stone and ballast.

Coal

The mining lease granted for 20 years in the year 1953 for extraction of coal at Richhai was terminated by the Government subsequently in the year 1958 as the party did not work the mine.

Soapstone

Availability of soapstone, dolomite, quartz and steatite at Chandlone in Narsimhapur Tahsil resulted in granting of leases for exploitation of these minerals, A lease for working a soapstone mine at this place granted over an area of 10.40 acres has not been working properly. Similarly, a soapstone, dolomite and quartz mining lease granted over an area of 102.47 acres is reported to have been surrendered by the lessee, the minerals being not found in the area. Soapstone, clay and steatite mining lease also at Chandlone executed in March, 1964, has not started working. However, soapstone and dolomite mining lease at village Keolari, which was executed in the year 1963, was reported to be working. In the year 1961 out-put of soapstone in the District was 560 tons which had dropped to 192 tons in the year 1962.

Clay

The main deposits of clay are reported to be on the top of the plateau south of Gadarwara and Narsimhapur. The mining of fire-clay and white-clay located at Deonagar in Narsimhapur Tahsil was leased for 10 years in the year 1960. The working of the mine was reported to be irregular. The leases for working the fire-clay and clay mines at Kenkra and Bachai in Narsimhapur Tashil granted in the year 1963 have not yet started working. In the year 1961 the out-put of clay was 617½ tons, which increased to 822 tons in the year 1962. The out-put of white-clay and fire- clay which was only 62. 32 tons in 1961 was reported to have increased to 500 tons in 1962.

Building-Stone

Sandstone and stone quarries are located at Bakori, Chilachone Khurd, Deori, and Kathotiya villages of Narsimhapur Tahsil and Benar village of Gadarwara Tahsil. The quarries at these villages are given on lease, and they are being worked.

Road Metal

The leased quarries of ballast stone are located at Charguan, Bakori, Deonagar and Chittadhana villages, all of them in Narsimhapur Tahsil.

The picture of the mineral resources of the District, as it emerges from the foregoing account, is one of paucity not only of major but also minor minerals, which makes exploitation of even minor minerals commercially unprofitable.

Small-Scale Industries

From the account of power and mineral resources of the District given in the foregoing pages it may be observed that the District is lacking in the requirements necessary for the existence of any heavy and large-scale industries. Besides inadequacy of power and mineral resources, there are not even industrial raw-materials which can be utilized in a large-scale industrial production. The industries as such in the District are therefore, small-scale industries based on agriculture like *dal* milling, oil extraction, saw milling, bidi making and brick and tiles manufacturing.

A beginning of the small-scale factories in the District appears to have been made by establishing cotton ginning and pressing factories. It is not known for certain whether any of these factories existed in the District in the last century, but in the earlier Gazetteer of the District there is a reference to the effect that "since 1901, three cotton ginning factories have been opened at Gadarwara, Chhindwara and Kareli". The number of these cotton ginning, cleaning and pressing factories registered under the Factories Act, 1911 did not exceed three, which was the case in the year 1915 and 1916 also. In the years 1917 and 1918, the number was two and from 1919 there remained only one cotton ginning and pressing factory registered under the Act till 1924, as the available records indicate. No other factory industries besides this, appear to have cropped up during this period, at least not of the magnitude as to qualify for registration under the then Factories Act. However, in the report on the administration of the Factories Act 1911, for the year 1930, two cotton ginning and baling, one flour mill and four miscellaneous units, appear as registered factories in the District. Hereafter, from the year 1931 to 1956, the existence of the District as a separate administrative unit was obliterated. In the interregnum a comprehensive factory legislation, viz., Factories Act, 1948, was enacted. This Act included within its purview, the bidi factories

which were till then being governed by the Central Provinces Unregulated Factories Act, 1937.

As stated earlier, the cotton ginning industry in the District, which was the first to be started on a factory basis, decayed and became extinct by the end of the 'thirties of the Century, perhaps the trade depression having taken its toll. The other industries in the District are *dal*-milling, saw-milling, bidi making and bricks and tiles making. The number of units registered under the Factories Act, 1948, under these industries for the year 1963 spot-lights the insignificance of industrial activity in the District, as can be seen from the following.

Dal-Milling

There were 19 registered factories in the year 1963. Out of these 12 factories were not working during the year. The remaining seven were found employing on an average 75 workers daily. The oldest *dal* mill on a factory basis was started in the year 1926 which is registered as Bhawanji Lalji *Dal* Mill at Gadarwara. It employs on an average 13 workers daily. The factories in the District are localized at Gadarwara. Different *dals* like gram, tur, batra, batri, masoor, etc., are mostly exported to different places in the Country. Gram *dal* is exported to Nagpur, Pulgaon, Yeotmal, Akola, Wardha, Hinghanghat, Jalgaon, Bhusawal, Ahmedabad, Madhi, Surendra Nagar, Jamnagar, etc., Masoor *dal* (split) and *malka* masoor are sent to Hyderabad, Bombay, Calcutta, Poona, Kolhapur, Assam and Siliguri. Batra and Batri *dal* (split) is exported to Bombay, Calcutta, Cochin, Kalicut, Trivendrum and Kolhapur. *Teora* is sent after milling to some *mandies* of Bombay and Kerala States. Moong and Urad pulses are mostly consumed locally.

Saw-Milling

There was only one registered factory during the year 1963 employing on an average 11 workers daily. The factory is located at Gotegaon and is known as Diwanchand Saw Mill. There are seven other unregistered saw-mills.

Bricks and Tiles

There were three units registered under the Factories Act during the year 1963. They are located at Bachai, Agaria and Kanharpani. Out of these three one unit at Bachai was closed during the year. Remaining two were found employing on an average 43 workers daily. These factories are being run without power and hence are registered under the appropriate Section of the Factories Act, 2 (m) (ii). The factories draw their supplies of clays from the quarries near Bachai and Narsimhapur. Tiles manufactured are of high quality like Banglore tiles, and besides meeting local demand they are exported to Seoni, Chhindwara, Sagar and Hoshangabad districts.

Bidi-Making

It is only this industry which emerges as an important industry in the District by virtue of its capacity in providing employment to comparatively large number of workers. In the year 1963, there were 14 units registered under the Factories Act, of course under Section 2 (m) (ii). Even here, all the 14 units were not working during the year, four of them being closed. The remaining 10 were found to be providing employment on an average to about 700 workers daily. The oldest unit under this industry was the one established in the year 1908. It is registered as the Chunnilal Sitaram Bidi Factory Kandeli, Narsimhapur, and employs on an average 7o workers per day. Another unit with a longer standing is Girdharilal Kanchedilal Kathal Bidi Factory at Gadarwara, which was established in the year 1915. This unit provides employment to about 150 workers daily on an average, which also happens to be the highest number from amongst all the factories registered under the Factories Act. The raw materials in the manufacture of bidis are *tendu* leaves which are used as a wrapper, other materials are thread, paper, card board and gunny cloth. *Tendu* leaves are generally available from the forests in the District itself or from the forests in the neighbouring district. Thread, card-board, paper and gunny cloth are usually imported from outside the District and the State. The bidis manufactured are marketed in the District as well as exported to the adjacent districts like Sehore, Ujjain, Shajapur, etc. Incidentally, it may be mentioned here that the trade in *tendu* leaves, which was till recently carried on by the forest contractors, has been taken over by the State Government under the Madhya Pradesh, Tendu Leaves (Regulation of Trade) Act, 1964. Under the appropriate Section of this Act, the State Government for the purpose of purchase and sale of *tendu* leaves appoints agents on its behalf.

Cottage Industries

In the rural set-up of the District with preponderance of agricultural activity as a means of livelihood, the District has practically all the old-time industries still carried on, on a cottage industry basis. However, in this sphere co-operatives have made welcome entrenchments, recently. The scene, where an individual worker was ploughing his lonely furrow with very little or no resources of his own, carrying on his enterprise in his cottage, entirely dependent on landlord or sahukar for finance required, is giving way to co-operative efforts in manufacturing, buying and selling of the products. As a result, it appears from the survey of industries carried out by the Industries Department in the District in the year 1962 that there were as many as 41 industrial co-operative societies in the District covering the whole gamut of the old-time industries reviewed in the previous pages. The financial assistance as also technical guidance is channelled through the Community Development Blocks under their industrial development programme. In their efforts to rejuvenate the

cottage industries, Government are laying emphasis on modren techniques of production, to impart which, it was revealed by the Survey, 10 training centres were working in four Block areas of Narsimhapur, Gadarwara, Gotegaon and Chawarpatha. Cane and bamboo work, carpentry, tailoring, dyeing and printing happened to be the industries in which technical training is being imparted. There were 244 trainees receiving training in these centres in the year 1962. The position in respect of the different cottage industries in the District is as under.

Handloom Weaving

According to the 1961 Census it appears that the handloom weaving industry was confined to the handlooms only in the real sense of the term, i. e., the powerlooms were not introduced in the weaving process. In the whole of the District there happened to be total number of 294 houses as defined for census purposes, which were used as manufacturing establishments for handloom cloth. Out of these, 265 houses happened to be in the rural areas of the District and remaining 29 in the urban. Of the 265 rural homes thus engaged, 163 were single-worker establishments and 102 remaining, came under the employment group of two to five persons. In the urban areas the houses falling under the employment groups of two to five happened to be only three, the remaining 26 being single-worker establishments. Rural areas of Narsimhapur Tahsil had 139 such establishments as compared to 126 of Gadarwara Tahsil. Similarly, there were 26 such handloom weaving establishments in Narsimhapur Tahsil urban areas as against only three of the Gadarwara Tahsil urban.

In the year 1962, as per report of the Industrial Survey, there were three handloom weavers co-operative societies. one each at Narsimhapur and Noni in Narsimhapur Tahsil and Banwari in Gadarwara Tahsil. These three societies amongst them had a membership of 311 with a total of 269 handlooms. The largest membership of 248 was of the Industrial Co-operative society at Banwari with 200 handlooms. In the year 1964 two societies one at Noni in Gotegaon Block and another at Banwari in Sainkheda Block had a membership of 140. These societies produce handloom cloth from 6 counts upwards to 26 counts, particularly *saris*, *dhotis*, *chaddar*, *khadi*, etc., which are marketed locally. There are only two powerloom establishments in the District, at Narsimhapur proper.

Oil Milling

Except for one *dal* mill, which combined with *dal* milling, the oil seeds crushing also, oil milling does not appear to have been carried on in the District on a factory basis. This *dal*-cum-oil mill even, was reported closed during the years 1962 and 1963. The unit is registered as a factory under the *dal* milling industry under the Factories Act, 1948.

According to the Census of 1961, there were 185 houses used as oil manufacturing establishments in the rural areas of the District, out of which 157 were single-worker establishments, and 28 others falling under the employment category of two to five persons. As against this in the urban areas, there were five such house-cum-manufacturing establishments, three of which were working without power, while two others were using power-one electricity and the other liquid fuel. Out of these five houses, four were single-worker establishments while only one came under the employment category of two to five.

According to the Survey of Industries carried out in the year 1962, there were 326 workers in the District engaged in crushing and pressing of oil seeds. The survey also revealed the existence of as many as 17 co-operative telodyog societies in the District with a total membership of 293. The industry is mostly concentrated in the rural areas of the District, larger concentration being in Narsimhapur Tahsil rural areas. The number of telodyog co-operative societies in the six Community Development Blocks of the District in the year 1964 was 13 with a membership of 216.

Leather and Leather Goods

The village cobbler or mochi is still plying his business in the rural set-up of the Country's economy everywhere and so also in the District. There are two aspects of this industry, one of which is tanning and finishing of hides and skins as also the preparation of finished leather, and the other is manufacture of shoes and other foot-wear. The total number of houses-cum-workshops for both these categories of work in the rural areas was 1,752 and 110 urban. The single-worker establishments numbered 1,380 in the rural and 73 in urban areas. In the employment category of two to five persons the establishments numbered 370 and one each in employment categories of six to nine and 10 to 19 all from the rural areas. In the urban areas there were 37 establishments falling under the employment group of two to five persons.

Under the industrial category of tanning and finishing of hides, etc., there were only nine single-person establishments in the whole of the District, five in rural and four in urban areas. In the other category, however, viz., manufacture of shoes and other leather foot-wear, there were a total of 1,747 house-establishments in rural areas and 106 in urban. The single-person establishments in the rural and urban areas were 1,375 and 60, respectively. In the employment category of two to five persons the house-establishments numbered 370 in rural and 37 in urban areas. In the employment category of six to nine and 10 to 19, there were two house-establishments, one each in the respective categories. These were also in the rural areas of the District. The Industrial Survey of the District in the year 1962, observed regarding tanning part of leather industry that, "Except skin other components are left

unused, whereas in other advanced countries not a single hair is wasted. This is because of lack of technical know-how. The method of flaying is primitive and the system of tanning is also crude which fetch (es) low price in the market". The Survey estimated that about 40 to 45 thousand of skin pieces are available in the District. According to the same survey, there were eight co-operative societies working in the industry with a membership of 153. The Department of Industries has given loans to the extent of Rs. 5,400 from the year 1959-60 to 1961-62, for the working and developmont of this industry, under the State Aid to Industries Act, 1958. The number of societies in the six Community Development Blocks in the year 1964 was 11. Out of these, nine societies had a membership of 144.

Blacksmithy

The cottage establishment of village blacksmith or *Lohar* making and mending agricultural implements, household cooking utensils, is an inalienable part of the Country's village economy. As against the old-time individual cottage establishment the workers now happen to be working on a co-operative basis. The Iron Worker's Co-operative Society was established at Tendukheda in the District in the year 1961. There were 15 members in this society and had a share capital of Rs. 1,750 by the year 1964. The society gets a regular quota of raw material from the Collector to carry on its manufacturing activities, the principal product being agricultural implements.

Making of Brass Utensils

Village Chichli from Gadarwara Tahsil of the District was in olden times a hub and centre of this manufacturing activity, though there were other centres also in the District carrying on this manufacturing activity. This industry has also suffered in competition with the large-scale manufacturing in this field and introduction of aluminium and stainless steel products among household utensils. However, the products of this industry in the District are marketed locally and in the nearby districts. The workers at Chichli are organized in a co-operative which was established in the year 1946 and had a membership of 265 in the year 1963. In this year the share capital of the Society was Rs. 14,200.

Manufacture of Wood and Wooden Products

In this industrial group there were 1,539 rural and 108 urban house-cum-workshops in the District as per 1961 Census. Two of these in the rural areas were worked on power, i.e., liquid fuel. In the urban areas there were 14 establishments using power, i.e., nine using liquid fuel as motive power and five using electricity. In the rural areas 1,051 establishments were single-person, 487 falling under the employment category of two to five and one under the

employment group of 10 to 19 persons. In the urban areas, 53 establishments were under the category of employment of two to five persons, 50 single-person establishments, two under six to nine category and three under 10 to 19 employment category.

There happened to be only 15 house-cum-workshops engaged in sawing of wood both in urban and rural areas, 13 out of these being in urban areas. Establishments manufacturing wooden furniture and fixture numbered 20 and were equally divided between rural and urban areas, i.e., 10 in each. There were 813 establishments engaged in the manufacture of wooden industrial goods, the number being 809 in the rural areas.

The Survey of Industries, 1962, listed 15 saw-mills in the District all using power, but there happened to be only one saw-mill registered under the Factories Act, 1948, a reference to which has been made earlier.

The Co-operative Society of Carpenters was established in the year 1962 at Bilthari in the Chawarpatha Block area. By 1964, the Society had a membership of 12, with a share capital of Rs. 300. Four carpentry training centres working in the Narsimhapur, Gadarwara, Gotegaon and Chawarpatha Blocks together trained 91 trainees during the period 1957 to 1963.

Bamboo-work

According to the Standard Industrial Classification, this industry falls under the larger industrial group of manufacture of wood and wooden products. Hence the number of house-cum-workshops as per 1961 Census given earlier is inclusive of this industrial sub-group. However, the establishments falling under this group separately, viz., manufacture of materials from cork, bamboo, cane, leaves and other allied products (Standard Industrial Classification) numbered 744, 682 in rural areas and 62 in urban. In the rural areas 332 happened to be single-person establishments, 350 falling under employment group of two to five. In the urban areas, 22 were single-person establishments 39 in the employment category of two to five and one under 10 to 19 employment group.

This industry has also been brought under the co-operative fold at Gotegaon, where Cane and Bamboo Manufacturing Society was started in the year 1962 and had a membership of 20 persons in the year 1964. One Cane and Bamboo Workers Training Centre has been working since 1960 in the Narsimhapur Community Development Block area.

Pottery, Tiles and Brick Making

A village potter or *Kumhar* preparing earthen pots for storing water and also for cooking purposes, in his cottage establishment, is still a feature of

industrial activity in a village community. Besides preparing earthen pots, a *Kumhar* also prepares bricks and tiles, clay figures and toys which find ready market in the weekly *hats*, on festive occasions, fairs and mellas.

According to 1961 Census, there were 467 houses in the District engaged in the preparation of earthen-ware and pottery. Out of these 461 were in the rural areas and six in urban. Single-person establishments numbered 382, while the number falling under employment category of two to five was 129 in the rural areas, Out of the six urban establishments two were single-person and four under the employment category of two to five.

Bricks and tiles making as well as pottery making are organised in co-operatives, in Narsimhapur, Gotegaon, and Kareli Blocks. By the year 1964, there were three Kumhari Udyog Societies, two in Gotegaon and one in Narsimhapur Blocks. All the three societies had a membership of 38 in the year 1964. Bricks and Tiles Making Societies happened to be one each in Kareli and Gotegaon Blocks. Membership of these in the year 1964 was 33.

Gold and Silver Works

The demand for gold and silver ornaments stems from three different aspects of human psychology viz., economic, aesthetic and exhibitory. In its first aspect, i. e., economic, the precious metal ornaments are looked upon as a store of value, which serves the purpose of cash, having liquidity and therefore, can come in handy during the time of economic stress and trouble. Aesthetically, the ornaments being wrought in delicate and alluring patterns by deft and skilful workmen are used to adorn the human physiognomy especially the physiognomy of the female of the human species. In its last aspect the precious metal ornaments serve the purpose of the display of wealth. All these factors working simultaneously, the demand for ornaments of precious metals had been quite substantial from times immemorial all over the Country and the trade in gold and silver ornaments flourished in all parts of the Country till recently. The number of workers in gold and silver metals in the District was as high as 3,000 in the year 1901, which came down to 795 in 1931, as had been pointed out earlier. By 1964, the self-employed goldsmiths in the District numbered only 106. With a view to conserving the foreign exchange resources of the Country and their utilization for economic development the National Government promulgated the Gold Control Order in 1963, which affected adversely the manufacture of gold and silver ornaments. The number of goldsmiths affected by this order in the District was 310. However, Government have given financial assistance to the tune of Rs. 50,000 to the goldsmiths thus affected in order to take up some alternative trade. Under this order, 138 goldsmiths have applied for licences to pursue their calling.

From amongst the other industries in the District cotton ginning, pressing and baling is carried on in the houses, without power. Such

establishments numbered 45 as per Census of 1961, 32 of which were in rural areas and the rest in urban.

Cotton dyeing and bleaching establishments numbered 47 in the year 1961, 45 of which were in the rural areas and only two in the urban. These also did not use power in the manufacturing process.

Lac industry in the District is organized on a co-operative basis at Barchhi in the Babai-Chichli Development Block, which had a membership of 30 in the year 1964. In the same Block there is also one Tin Iron Workers Co-operative Society which had a membership of 50 in the year 1964. Two units, one preparing lemon and orange squash and the other polishing and engraving work, both engaging two and three workers, respectively, were also working in the Babai-Chichli Block.

In Sainkheda Block, *agarbatti* manufacturing unit was working in the year 1964, which employed four workers.

In the Kareli Development Block there were six units manufacturing band-saw, which together employed 35 workers. The Co-operative Society of Rope Makers is organized in Narsimhapur Block, which had a membership of 13 in the year 1964. In the same Block, there was also one unit preparing steel trunks. This unit employed three workers in the year 1964.

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIAL

From the account of the mineral, power and industrial raw-material resources in the District, given in the foregoing pages, the picture of industrial potential of the District does not emerge in bold or bright outlines. That is why perhaps, the Techno-Economic Survey of Madhya Pradesh carried on by the National Council of Applied Economic Research in the year 1958, did not specify the name of the District either for setting up of any small-scale and large-scale industries, or expansion of the existing industries. However, the Industrial Survey carried on by the Industries Department in the year 1962 envisaged the possibilities of the industrial development of the District on following lines.

The forest resources of the District, such as they are, can be utilized by setting up, wood seasoning, railway sleepers manufacturing and furniture making units. Lac found in the forests can be used for manufacturing shellack paints and varnish and lacquer. The wheat-straw, which is generally used as a cattle feed can be utilized as a raw-material in the manufacturing of straw-board.

After proper exploration and exploitation of the mineral resources of the District, there are possibilities of starting pottery, cement, and lime manufactu-

ring industries. Clay and coal can be found at Bachai and Gotitoria hills. Limestone exists in the vicinity of Hastnapur, Khadai and Hiranpur villages, which can be utilized for cement and lime manufacturing industries. The Survey of Industries further pointed out that small-scale or cottage units for manufacturing of soap and candles, agricultural implements, plastic materials, etc., could be set-up in the District.

The industrial development of the District on the above lines is, however, felt to be possible only after the availability of cheap power and facilities of transport like net-work of proper roads. The Madhya Pradesh Laghu Udyog Nigam have started construction of one semi-urban Industrial Estate at Narsimhapur in an area of 8.02 acres of land. The construction work of five sheds was in progress.

LABOUR AND EMPLOYERS' ORGANIZATIONS

The nucleus of trade union organization in the District is the bidi industry. As the largest number of workers in the District at any time is employed in this industry alone, the workers in the industry are organized in three trade unions, viz.,

1. Rashtriya Bidi Kamgar Sangh, Patel Ward, Kandeli, Narsimhapur.
2. Rashtriya Bidi Kamgar Sangh, Gadarwara and
3. Bidi Mazdoor Sangh, Kareli, Narsimhapur.

The first one is affiliated to the Indian National Trade Union Congress and functioning since November, 1957. The second and the third unions have been registered in October, 1958 and January, 1961, respectively. The membership of these unions was 849 workers in the year 1965. The activities of the trade unions are confined mainly to the protection of wages and working conditions of the workers in the industry. These workers' organizations may be said to be still in a formative stage, and little or no welfare activities for the workers, like provision of recreation facilities, education, provision of medical care, etc., are being undertaken by them.

The other industries in the District run on factory basis are *dal* milling, bricks and tiles making and saw-milling. As these are mostly seasonal factories, the labour component is mostly of casual nature, each individual unit employing not more than 10 to 20 workers on an average daily. Naturally, therefore, no trade unions exist in these industries.

There are the following employers' organisations, being run for the protection of the commercial and trade interests of the employers/traders.

1. Grain Merchants Association, Gadarwara.
2. Grain Merchants Association, Narsimhapur.
3. Grain Merchants Association, Kareli and
4. Grain Merchants Association, Gotegaon.

WELFARE OF INDUSTRIAL LABOUR

Bidi industry is the only important industry in Narsimhapur District which employs a large number of workers. The working force, in this industry is quite mobile, in as much as, many of the workers take up bidi making to supplement their income from agriculture during off season. Moreever, to circumvent the provisions of the Factories Act and other welfare enactments there is a practice amongst the employers to get the work done on a contract basis. The practice is to supply the bidi workers with the fixed quantity of raw-matarials, such as *tendu* leaves, tobacco and thread and, against this material, to get certain number of bidis prepared by them. The material is handed over to the workers at their homes and rolled bidis are later collected. These conditions in the bidi industry are not amenable to organised welfare activities for workers. Wherever bidi making is practised in regular factories, all the welfare facilities, guaranteed under different labour legislations, are provided. In other industries in the District, like *dal* and oil mills, tile factories, electricity generation and distribution, etc., the welfare facilities, guaranteed under the statute, are provided.

The minimum wages have been fixed under the Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Act, 1962, for the Scheduled Industries like *dal* manufacturing, bidi making, oil manufacturing, flour mills, etc. The minimum wages in bidi industry in the District are Rs. 1.56 per 1,000 bidis at Narsimhapur, Gadarwara and Gotegaon proper and Rs. 1.50 per 1.000 bidis at all other municipal towns (i.e. including Kareli town) in the District, having population exceeding 5,000. At all other places in the District the rate is Rs. 1.44 for 1,000 bidis. In *dal* mills the minimum wages for male workers at such places, where population is above 5,000 persons are Rs. 1.37, for female workers Rs. 1.12 and for child worker Rs. 1.00, and at other places in the District the wages are Rs. 1.25 for male, Rs. 1.00 for female and Rs. 0.87 for child worker.

The provision regarding sickness insurance and medical facilities provided under the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, have not yet been made applicable to the industries in the District.

The Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, and the Scheme framed thereunder, are applicable to the establishments in the Scheduled Industries employing 50 or more persons after the expiry of three years from the date of the commissioning of the factories or employing 20 or more employees having

completed first five years of their set-up. The rate of employer's contribution payble under the scheme is $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent of the basic wages, dearness allowance and cash value of food concessions, etc. By an amendment to the relevant section of the Act in the year 1962, the employer's contribution in respect of industries like manufacturing of cigarettes, electrical, mechanical or general engineering products, iron or steel and paper has been raised to eight per cent. None of these industries, however, exists in the District. Employees' contribution is equal to that of the employer. The employees who have concluded one year's continuous service or 240 days actual work in a period of 12 months are eligible for membership of the statutory fund. Some of the Scheduled industries in the District are (1) Electricity generation and transmission, and (2) Road Motor Transport. The benefits under the Employees' Provident Fund Scheme in the District are given by the Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board and Madhya Pradesh State Road Transport Corporation to their employees.

Benefits under the Maternity Benefits Act, 1958 and the Workmen's Compensation Act, have been reported to be 'nil'.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

History of Indigenous Banking

Indigenous banking is identified with the acceptance of deposits and money lending, apart from financing of trade through dealing in *hundis*.[1] The indigenous banking received a great fillip when after 1865 the lands were settled in absolute occupancy, and *malik-makbuza* rights were conferred on cultivators, with the effect that advancing of loans on mortgage of land or house was facilitated. This, however, resulted in acquisition of land and villages by *mahajans* through foreclosure, notably by the firm of Mohanlal Ramlal Maheshwari of Gadarwara, and Modiram, later known as Deo Karan Bhagwan Das and Jagannath Omkar Das of Gadarwara. By the close of the 19th Century, Narsimhapur made great advance in trade through the opening of railway in 1870, connecting it with Bombay. The important money-lenders, holding fine estates in the District, were Raja Gokuldas of Jabalpur, while Seth Chhedamilal, Narbada Prasad, Seth Ghasi Ram and Ganesh Pandit[2] were also important who had wide money-lending business.

Nature of Indigenous Banking

Jenkins in his report on the territories of Raja of Nagpur, submitted to the Supreme Government of India in 1827, gives a detailed description of these so-called bankers.

The landlords or their agents in Narsimhapur, the substantial cultivators, the *mahajans* or *sahukars* and itinerant money-lenders have been the principal indigenous financiers in the rural areas, the urban area being served mainly by the professional money-lenders, known as *seth* or *mahajan*. These met personal or agricultural needs of the cultivators, both in cash and grain. In urban areas, the chief borrowers are craftsmen, traders, and village *sahukars*. The old Gazetteer of Narsimhapur states the names of important money-lenders who

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1. Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee Report, 1929-30, Vol. I, p. 328.
2. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1885-94, p. 28.

had considerable business in the District. Among the leading ones, there were as many Brahmins as Banias.

Usually, *sahukar* is a man of means, operating on his own funds. Frequently, he combines banking with some sort of trade and the capital invested in banking business is not distinguished from that employed in trade. Of the various functions acceptance of deposits, granting of credit or lending of money on liquid security, helping in the transfer of funds, financing of trade, etc., are important. The unification of currency in 1835, for the whole of British India, took away from them an important function and source of income, viz., money-changing. All these gradually reacted on the development of banking in the Country as a whole, and with the change in the political and economic conditions the institution providing banking facility has also undergone changes.

Though the advent of modern European banking institutions in the early years of the 20th Century gave a set-back to the business of the indigenous bankers, yet its continued dominance in the rural areas led to a suggestion that any realistic system of rural credit should seek to incorporate it in itself rather than compete with it or eliminate it.

GENERAL CREDIT FACILITIES AVAILABLE

Apart from the agency of indigenous bankers or money-lenders, other principal agencies now meeting the short and intermediate credit demands of the District populace are commercial banks, Government agencies and co-operative credit institutions. The extension of the area of operation by the co-operatives from credit to non-credit demands is also a comparatively recent development, more emphasised after the Independence under the Plan schemes. The Government have also stepped in a big way and are making substantial funds available to villagers for variety of purposes. Apart from these, the commercial banks mainly cater to the urban demands, though recently the State Bank of India is extending its branch activities more and more in the interior. However, their organisation and method of work conspire to limit their utility in rural areas. Thus, notwithstanding the development of these new agencies the professional money-lender continues to be the corner-stone of credit in rural areas.

Indebtedness

Proverbially, an average cultivator is born in debt and bequeaths the same to his sons, and Narsimhapur District is no exception to this. Till 1835, observed Grant, "Narsimhapur appeared to lie under a kind of ban, fatal to all its attempts to attain prosperity. There is now not a district in the Central Provinces, which is so universally prosperous. The most

embarassed land-holding families, have by degrees paid-of their debts ....Riches have been amassed in mere agriculture.................".[1]

Major Erskine who later became the Commissioner in the year 1856 reported that the condition of peasantry in the District was exceptionally comfortable and as such indebtedness was not heavy.[2] In the closing decade of the 19th Century, De Brett in the Settlement Report wrote that both *malguzars* and tenants continued to live comfortably, and those of cultivating castes were well-housed and well-fed. With considerable profits from agriculture, the land-owing cultivators at times were naturally much given to extravagance and other festivities, and hence some were heavily indebted.[3]

There were on the contrary many cases, where people were known to be deeply indebted and the adjoining State of Bhopal, probably furnished a safe refuge from money-lender's toils.[4] But it is observed that often the debt is kept as a sort of running account. The tenant prefers to keep up his connection with his banker in order that he may obtiain help at time of need.[5] Though, the burden of rental had very little to do with the indebtedness of the tenants, yet the *malguzars* had in the past made those rents fall more heavily on the *ryots* than they really should by disregarding the proportion in which they were authorized to levy the instalment of rent. This procedure compelled *ryot* to resort to forestalling the crop with the local *sahukar*, and as such, incur debt. Accordingly, while the cultivators of the Narmada valley had reaped the largest profits from agriculture, even prior to the year 1893 they were also more heavily indebted than those of any other part of the Province. The bad harvests of the year 1893 to 1895 made them incur more debts, and rental arrears were accumulated. Such conditions continued till the closing year of the past century, after which marked improvement was registered when restrictions were imposed on transfers by the Tenancy Act of 1898. The severity of this period is reflected in the transfer of villages which totalled 402, or more than a third of the total number in the District during 1894 to 1904. The transfers were, however, by no means entirely from agriculturists to money-lenders.[6]

Writing about the prevalent rates of interest in the District R. V. Russell noted that it varied according to the amount borrowed. Comparatively they were higher and adequately secured private loans of considerable sums

1. Nursingpore Settlem·nt Report, 1866, p. 43.
2. Ibid, p. 44,
3. Ibid, 1885-94, p. 27.
4. Ibid, p. 24.
5. Ibid, p. 28.
6. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 121.

were not, usually obtainable under 9 per cent. Further he observed that "The rate for loans above Rs. 1,000 varies however between 6 and 12 per cent. For loans of small sums below Rs. 1,000 the rate varies between 12 and 14 per cent...............The rate of interest on loans of seedgrain for the spring crops is 25 per cent, and rises to 50 per cent, in the case of borrowers of doubtful stability. For seed-grain for the autumn crops the rate of interest is from 50 to 100 per cent, but these grains are seldom borrowed from the regular money-lenders owing to the small quantity required for sowing, and a tenant who wants seed can usually get it from another tenants. A system is also practised by malguzars and petty money-lenders, called *bandhewa* or *bandhor*; advances are made to the tenant for his seed-grain or rent, and he is bound to repay the loan in grain at harvest-time at a fixed rate which is sometimes less than half the market rate. This practice has however greatly decreased in recent years. Bills of exchange on Bombay are sold in Narsinghpur, the ordinary rate of discount varying from 4 to 8 annas per cent for payment at sight."[1]

In the 'twenties, the position of indebtedness was thoroughly investigated during the Settlment Operations of the years 1923-26, and later by the Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee, 1929-30. For the first time J.G. Bourne, the Settlement Offiicer estimated the tenants' and *malik-makbuzas*' debt to the extent of Rs. 38,63,103 which increased to about Rs. 55 lakhs, an increase of about Rs. 16 lakhs by the end of 'twenties when the position was again reviewed by the Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee. The principal reason for incurring debt was for the purchase of land. Further, the Settlement Report observed that, of the total indebtedness of tenants and *malik-makbuzas*, for the whole of the District, practically half the tenants, viz., 49 per cent had no debts at all, 16 per cent had debts over Rs. 200, while 22 per cent alleged petty debts below Rs. 100.

Later, at the end of the decade the Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee examined in detail the indebtedness of 4,669 persons in 73 villages in the District. The total debt of the District was calculated to be of the following megnitude :—

	Rs.
Malguzars	15,83,842
Malik-Makbuzas	2,11,714
Absolute occupancy tenants	20,44,602
Occupancy tenants	32,28,469
Total	70,68,627

1. Ibid, p. 117.

Further, the Committee estimated that about 27 per cent of the debt was adequately secured and the rest of the 73 per cent, was unsecured. It was also found that village were heavily indebted to *mahajans*, who accounted for about 64 per cent of the total debt. However, 20.2 per cent of the debt was owed to landlords, 12 per cent to Government and only 3.8 per cent to co-operatives which reaffirmed the continued supremacy of *mahajans* in the village economy. The Committee further found that repayment of old debts still accounted for the largest single purpose for which debts were incurred. The following Table classifies the purposes for which debts were incurred :—

Purpose	Percentage of debt
Payment of old debts	29.5
Marriage and ceremonials	7.3
Maintenance and household expenses	3.9
Payment of revenue or rent	4.5
Agricultural expenses	22.2
Field embankment and land improvement	17.9
Purchase of land	10.9
Litigation	2.3
Purchase of improved implements	1.5

As has been stated earlier the increase in total indebtedness in the District during this period does not represent a normal debt because as large a sum as Rs. 15,83,842 of it was due to *malguzars*, much of which was suspended rent, and Rs. 6,08,824 was due to Government for *taccavi* advances owing to crop failure. The Banking Enquiry Commitee thus observed that "For this reason, a much larger percentage of total cultivators, are, at present, temporarily indebted,......"[1]

Though the economic conditions in this District were undoubtedly better, in comparison with other districts in the Province, the interest charges were a very heavy burden indeed. The average rate of interest was not less than 20 per cent and total interest charges on the tenants were, therefore, not less than Rs. 11 lakhs per annum.[2]

The Committee further observed that about 4.5 per cent of the total cultivators, bearing 26.6 per cent of the total debt, were indebted beyond any reasonable hope of redemption, while 57.5 per cent, bearing 73.4 per cent of total debt, were indebted within means. Even the members of the co-operative societies were indebted, the extent of debt on an average being about Rs. 167

1. The Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee Report, 1929-30, Vol. II, pp. 684-85.
2. Ibid.

per member owed to the society, and about Rs. 575 owed to other sources. Thus, it may be seen that they were "much more heavily indebted than the average cultivator"[1] in the District.

"The usual rates of interest prevailing in the sub-division was 24 to 40 per cent per annum. In certain possible cases the regular payment of annual interest was secured by obtaining possesson of the debtor's land in whole or in part. The Gadarwara tahsil seemed to have especialised in this mode of collection of annual interest which at times amounted to over 80 per cent of the sums advanced."[2]

It is obvious that inspite of the progressive enlargement of credit facilities through various Government agencies, the fact remained that the cultivators continued to depend for a major portion of their borrowing on the professional money-lenders. No economic investigation or survey of rural indebtedness in the District was conducted after the Banking Enquiry Committee 1929-30. But the all India Rural Credit Survey, sponsored by the Reserve Bank of India in the year 1951 brought to light the state of rural indebtedness in the region. The Committee carried out a survey in the adjoining Sagar District which lies to the north of Narsimhapur District, and has close economic affinities with it. Hence, the findings of the Committee in respect of Sagar District could more or less, be taken as representative of the wheat-zone to which Narsimhapur District also belongs.

The survey revealed that in Sagar the average debt per cultivating family was Rs. 568. Of this, 36.4 per cent was owed to Government, 1.4 per cent to co-operatives and commercial banks, 6.3 per cent to relations, 2.0 per cent to agriculturist money-lenders, 53.2 per cent to professional money-lenders and 0.7 per cent to other agencies. This gives fair idea of the role the money-lenders play in the rural finance.

Urban Indebtedness

In the urban areas too, the indigenous *sahukars* and merchants were the principal source of finance. The Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee Report, 1929-30 records the existence of big money-lenders in Gadarwara, Narsimhapur, Gotegaon and Kareli, who carried grain business also. The richest amongst them were Rao Sahib Seth Laxminarain of Gadarwara, and the family of Singhpur Kalars. At present there are about 9 prominent money-lenders in Gadarwara, 10 in Kareli, 6 in Gotegaon and 28 in Narsimhapur town in the District. They finacc the

1. Ibid, p 686.
2. Report on the Working of the Debt Conciliation Board Narsinghpur-Gadarwara, 1934-36, p 14.

business requirements in the urban areas too. However, the megnitude of the same would not be assessed for want of relevent data. These *sahukars* not only advance loans but also deal in *hundis*. Now the commercial credit is increasingly being availed of at usual rates in the urban areas.

The Banking Enquiry Committee was followed by a spate of legislations for the protection of debtors. The Government of Central Provinces and Berar enacted the C. P. and Berar Debt Conciliation Act, 1933, which was subsequently amended four times during the same decade. In the year 1937 the Central Provinces Protection of Debtors Act for the protection of debtors from molestation and intimidation at the hands of creditors was also passed.

The object behind the Debt Conciliation Act was to reduce the quantum of debt and facilitate clearing of debts in easy instalments. The Sub-Divisional Debt Conciliation Board was established in April, 1934 for a period of one year. It was solite into two Boards, one for Narsimhapur Tahsil and the other for Gadarwara Tahsil. This period was extended upto the 2nd May, 1936. The bulk of the debt which the Board was required to conciliate represented advances taken from money-lenders. During the period, 5,317 applications were received for conciliation of debts amounting to Rs. 96.73 lakhs, of which nearly 1,451 applications were dismissed. Agreements under section 12(1) of the Act, were executed in 3,866 cases for debts amounting to Rs. 57.63 lakhs. This amount was conciliated for Rs. 25.22 lakhs which represents a remission of Rs. 32.41 lakhs or 56 per cent of the demand. Certificates numbering 1,304 were issued under section 15 (1), declaring that the creditors had unreasonably refused settlement, covering debts amounting to Rs. 9.43 lakhs in all. Thus, conciliation was effected in 73 per cent of the total number of applications presented to the Boards for conciliation.[1]

In 73 per cent of the cases involving Rs. 24.52 lakhs, which were secured by mortagages, the Board was able to effect conciliation and obtain remission of Rs. 13.69 lakhs or 56 per cent of demand. In dealing with usufructuary mortagage great difficulty was felt but, nevertheless, 337 claims amounting to Rs. 2.58 lakhs were settled for Rs. 1.04 lakh, and a remission of 60 per cent[2] was effected.

The Board also estimated that about two-thirds of the debt incurred by persons whose cases came up before the Board had been incurred for non-agricultural purposes, and only one-third represented debt taken for the

1. Ibid, p. 1.
2. Ibid, p. 2.

expenses of cultivation. To afford further relief to much oppressed indebted agriculturists the Government enacted the Central Provinces and Berar Relief of Indebtedness Act, which was passed in 1939 and the rules under the Act were framed in the following year. Accordingly, a debtor whose debt did not exceed Rs. 25,000 could seek relief in the determination of his debt by filing an application before Debt Relief Court. The Act appears to have accomplished the main object for which it was enacted. After the enactment of these measures the position of the indebted cultivators in the District was considerably improved. "Most encouraging sign", it has been observed in the report on the administration of the afore-mentioned Act, was that perhaps "the debtors have begun to move towards clearing their debts of altogether instead of postponing them."[1]

Role of Private Money-lenders

The history of indebtedness of about a century in Narsimhapur District, traced in the earlier pages, established beyond any misapprehension the firmly entrenched position of money-lenders or *mahajans* in the rural finance, even after facing severe competition from oter credit agencies and curbs imposed under various enactments. The continued dominance of money-lenders in the village economy, stems from their operational flexibility and variety of purposes for which credit is made available to villagers. As agriculture has generally been carried on with the borrowed capital it necessitated an agency which could meet the short and intermediate credit needs of the cultivators at short notice. Money-lenders supplies money for every conceivable purpose without any detailed enquiry about the credit worthiness, etc., of the cultivators. Small cultivators depend on him for seed, and also for their own maintenance during the period that must elapse before the harvest is ready. Even after the introduction of other agencies, viz., Co-operatives, Commercial Banks, Government, etc., which have in recent times extended their area of operation to a considerable extent, the dominance of money-lenders in the village society continued to assert itself. This position was affirmed by the Banking Enquiry Committee in the late thirtees, and also by the Rural Credit Survey in the report on the adjoining Sagar District in the fiftees of the Century.

This led to the suggestion that any realistic system of rural credit should seek to incorporate the money lender in the system rather than compete with him or eliminate him.

Not ignorant of their inevitable role in the rural credit, dishonesty any unscrupulousness naturally crept into the ranks of these financiers gradually,

1. Report on the Administration of C. P. and Berar Relief of Indebtedness Act, (XIV of 1939). 1941, p. 12.

and in due course underhand and usurious methods for exploiting unsophisticated and illiterate villagers became rampant owing to lack of regulations. As late as 1934, the Government, therefore, enacted the Central Provinces and Berar Money-Lenders' Act, 1934 (XIII of 1934). As the internal trade in the District increased, Narsimhapur grew into an important centre of money-lenders. Besides every village at its helm still preserved the unflinching authority of the village money-lender, the *sahukar*. The reason is not for to seek which lies in their operational flexibility. Commercial and co-operative credit has yet to penetrate the hard core of rural economy.

The dependance on this agency can be seen from the number of registered money-lenders in the District, given as under :—

Year	Gadarwara Tahsil	Narsimhapur Tahsil	Total
1	2	3	4
1950	185	—	—
1951	171	186	357
1952	225	248	413
1953	334	291	625
1954	253	304	557
1955	235	327	562
1956	251	325	576
1957	251	340	591
1958	248	363	611
1959	255	385	640
1960	262	401	663
1961	276	397	673
1962	273	422	700
1963	288	422	710
1964	277	412	619

The money-lenders now advance money mainly against the security of ornaments or execution of sale-deeds of lands with an agreement to resale. Due to high rate of interest charged by money-lenders, people have started taking loans from the Government in the form of *taccavis* or from the co-operative credit institutions in the District. The extent of the same may be seen in the Table below which shows the outstanding loans during the last four years :—

(In Rs.)

Year	Loans outstanding against co-operative societies	Government *Taccavi*	
		Loan	Subsidy
1960-61	24,99,441	4,49,800	12,500
1961-62	30,89,194	4,31,240	38,810
1962-63	40,76,460	4,70,400	26,000
1963-64	58,97,015	14,28,705	—

Rate of Interest

In the grain markets of Kareli and Gadarwara, interest at the rate of 6¼ per cent to 12½ per cent is charged for the short-period loans taken by the grain purchasers through commission agents. These loans are repaiJ within a week's time. Interest is generally realized in advance. Though the lending of seed-grain has practically ceased in the District, yet those who practice it charge *badhi* interest at the rate of 20 to 25 per cent for the first six months, and there afrer compound interest is charged. Pathan money-lenders, though have practically ceased operating now, used to charge exhorbitant rates of interest.

Joint Stock Banks

Besides these sources of finance and credit, others comparatively of recent origin are commercial banks and co-operative credit agencies. The modern banking structure specializes only in certain phases of economic activity because of its structure, a method of business, etc. The general functions of these institutions are, assistance to business and industry through advances and loans, over-drafts, discounting of *hundis*, and other remittance facilities, apart from acting as agents on behalf of its customers.

The modern banking institution came into existence in the District very late. Till the thirties of the century there was to joint stock bank in the District. However, the Imperial Bank of India (now State Bank of India) used to depute a representative in the season to Kareli and Gadarwara, who occasionally made advances to big merchants against grain, etc. There were frequent complaints of shortages of funds at Gadarwara and Kareli where a need was felt for a branch of the Joint Stock Bank to finance the transportation and marketing of the agricultural produce. As a consequence, the Allahabad Bank and Imperial Bank of India opened their offices in the District. Kareli got a pay-office in January, 1941 under the Jabalpur branch of the Imperial Bank of India. Later, from the 1st April, 1958 this pay-office was transferred to Narsimhapur office of the State Bank of India.

Allahabad Bank which had its branch in the District in the past was closed after sometime. At present the following branches of State Bank of India (successors to Imperial Bank of India) are catering to the needs of the District :—

State Bank of India, Ltd., Narsimhapur,
(established On the 24th December 1956)
State Bank of India Ltd. Gadarwara,
(branch established on the 29th July, 1958).
State Bank of India Ltd., Kareli,
(pay-office established on the 1st January, 1942)
State Bank of India, Ltd., Gotegaon,
(pay-office established in January, 1949)

The consolidated volume of business transacted and money advanced by the joint stock banks in the District during the period 1958 to 1962 is given in the following Table :—

(Rs. in '000)

Year	Volume of business conducted	Annual figures of advances
1958	2,61,56	33,29
1959	5,13,57	35,01
1960	5,98,82	2,63,57
1961	6,93,53	3,02,31
1962	6,80,37	2,23,84

Defence Efforts

In recent years under the banner of 'Save for the National Defence and Development', a number of new schemes were introduced by the Government to collect funds. Prominent role was played by the joint stock banks and post-offices at Narsimhapur in collecting funds under different schemes. The total cash collection amounted to Rs. 7,39,785 and that of gold during the months of February to May, 1964 amounted to 6,211.562 grams. There was spontaneous response from the public in general, and they donated liberally in cash and gold towards the Defence Funds.

The Table giving the gross and net amount collected under the small saving scheme in the District from the year 1961-62 to 1964-65, has been included in the Appendix A.

Warehousing Corporation

With the formation of the Madhya Pradesh State Warehousing Corporation in February, 1953 under the Agricultural Produce (Development and Warehousing) Act, 1956, an additional facility was provided for the cultivator, not only for the storage of the produce, but also for raising loans and advances on easy terms. Under this scheme, two warehouses were established in Narsimhapur District. The first was set up at Gadarwara in the year 1959, and the second at Kareli in the year 1961. The agriculturists who deposit their produce in these warehouses are required to pay nominal charges for this service. Against the security of the warehouse Receipt they can obtain advance to the extent of 60 to 75 per cent of the total value of the produce from the branches of the State Bank of India in the District. The interest payable on such advances ranges from 5 per cent to 7½ per cent per annum.

The following Table gives the stock position of both the warehouses in the District :—

(In quintals)

Period (April to March)	Stock Position	
	Gadarwara	Kareli
1961-62	1,03,197	3,480
1962-63	1,08,494	66,003
1963-64	94,634	43,010
1964-65	42,050	45,420

These Warehouses are lodged in the private godowns, engaged on rental basis. It is observed that in Gadarwara the producers are taking more advantage by keeping their produce in the warehouse, while in Kareli the traders are increasingly utilising the facilitis of the warehouse.

Co-operative Credit Societies and Banks

The Co-operative Central Bank, Ltd., Narsimhapur

The co-operative movement was introduced in the Narsimhapur District from the 26th January, 1911, when the Co-operative Central Bank came into existence at Narsimhapur and was subsequently registered under the Co-operative Societies Act II of 1912. The area of operation of the Bank extended throughout the two tahsils of the District. viz., Narsimhapur and Gadarwara. At the inception, its share capital was Rs. 2.525 subscrided by individual members and eleven affiliated primary co-operative societies with a membership of 185 persons. During the ensuing two decades, i.e., utpo 1930-31, it maintained steady progress, unmindful of the economic deterioration which had set in

during the First World War, and consequent economic difficulties. The number of affiliated societies in the year 1930-31 increased to 287 with a membership of 3,618 persons, and the share capital rose to Rs. 66,794. Loans outstanding against the societies amounted to Rs. 4,85,000.

Though late, the impact of the economic conditions. which affected movement in the 'twenties, was felt in the District in the ensuing decade 1931-41, when the economic d.pression of the 'thirties further gave a set-back to the movement. The Central Bank had to face a series of crisis, and the earlier progress was retarded on account of a fall in prices of grains in the year 1938-39. The funds of the Bank were locked up in loans to the societies and their members. The lowest water-mark was touched in the year 1942-43 when its share capital dwindled to Rs. 40,CC0 and the number of affiliated societies decreased to 188 with a membership of only 1,690 persons. The overall working capital of the Bank also, correspondingly, declined to Rs. 5,12,986. During this period, many of the member-societies became defement and some of the societies had to be liquidated. Their debts had to be written off out of their own reserve funds, and also to some extent out of the reserve funds of the Bank.

To save peasentry from water destitution, Government also amended Tenancy Act, and enacted debt conciliation legislation which greatly revitalized the Co-operative Movement. The Bank had to reorganise the societies, and in the process had to write off bad debts to the tune of Rs. 64,000, outstanding against the societies. The recovery after this crisis had been steady and during the following decade the Bank maintained good progress.

Hereafter was ushered in an era of economic planning, and co-operative credit was given a place of prominence in the planning activities. Hence the movement got a fillip, and began to spread both in credit and non-credit fields. The number of societies also began to increase steadily year after year. From 179 agricultural credit societies the number increased to 203 by the end of the First Plan (1955-56), and further increased to 329 by the end of the Second Plan period (1960-61). As far the non-credit side of the movement, the position obtaining in 1960-61 was as under :—

	No. of societies	No. of members
1. Agricultural, other than Primary (Rural)	4	1,296
2. Non-Agricultural Societies	12	544
3. Societies other than Primary (Urban and Rural areas)	26	1,088
4. Urban areas	4	53

Thus, more than half a century old co-operative movement got a impetus during the planning era. Consequently, the coverage of the Movement was enlarged and co-ordinated. The important agencies in the co-operative structure in the District as in the month of July, 1963, were the central financing agency, the Central Bank, large-sized societies 15, service societies 88, primary credit societies 84, marketing societies 4, industrial and other societies 6 and non-agricultural credit and Joint Farming societies, 6 each. The Co-operative Central Bank and the Land Mortgage Bank at Narsimhapur are the principal agricultural financing agencies, catering to the needs of its members.

The membership of the credit societies rose to 16,263 in the year 1964, and the Bank covered 949 villages under co-operative fold. The Bank made rapid progress during the course of the last three years, which is revealed in the followiug Table :--

Particulars	Unit	As on the 30th June			
		1961	1962	1963	1964
Paid-up share capital	Rs.	4,62,958	5,24,016	5,53,187	7,97,531
Deposits	Rs.	21,55,535	23,28,869	25,51,676	28,44,027
Loans outstanding against societies	Rs.	24,99,440	30,89,194	40,76,460	48,98,373
Working capital	Rs.	39,39,658	47,04,134	56,16,534	68,24,115
No of affiliated societies of the Bank	Nos.	381	377	325	345
No of members of societies	Nos.	14,912	16,161	16,208	16,263

From the beginning the Bank inspired confidence in the public, and began attracting deposits even from the persons who were not residents of Narsimhapur District. The Bank withstood the serious financial strain that follows in the wake of economic depression of the 'thirties, which owing to general fall in price level sharply reduced the repaying capacity of the cultivators. Consequently, the recoveries by the Bank were also adversely affected. The great rush on the other hand for withdrawals was also met by the Bank successfully and with confidence. This had a salutary effect on the depositors whose confidence in the Bank was restored after a period of comparative lull. The deposits of the Bank increased from Rs. 6,51,623 in the year 1950-51 to Rs. 28,44,026 in the year 1963-64. The Reserve Bank of India has been offering cheap credit facilities by providing financial accommodation to the Central Bank through the Apex Co-operative Bank. The Narsimhapur

Co-operative Central Bank owed to the Reserve Bank of India a sum of Rs. 1,25,300, and to the Government (*taccavi*) a sum of Rs. 7,54,600 on the 1st July, 1963. Reserve and other funds amounted to Rs. 5,08,700.

The Bank advances medium and short-term loans to its member-societies. Medium-term loans are given for land improvements, construction of embankments and wells, installation of pumping sets, and for the purchase of bullocks Short-term loans are given for raising of crops, e.g., for seeds, fertilizers, agricultural expenses, etc. Ordinarily, maximum amount which can be advanced to a member of a society is Rs. 2,000, consisting of Rs. 1,000 each for medium and short-term. However, the amount of loan to be given depends upon the borrowing capacity of the member. The rate of advance was fixed at Rs. 35 per acre.

The following Table gives the position of advances, recoveries and loans outstanding against the credit and non-credit societies in Narsimhapur, during the three years ending June, 1963 :—

Year	Advances		Recoveries		Loans outstanding	
	Credit societies	Non-Credit societies	Credit societies	Non-Credit societies	Credit societies	Non-Credit societies
1960-61	14,71,259	8,32,372	11,35,443	6,96,880	22,88,505	2,10,938
1961-62	27,32,215	3,07,959	20,44,767	4,05,654	29,75,953	1,13,243
1962-63	21,43,896	6,43,407	16,90,344	3,48,826	36,73,975	4,02 485

Following the recommendation of Rural Credit Survey Committee, 1951 the State has been actively participating in the co-operative field. It has further buttressed the movement by giving staff subsidy on sliding scale for three years, apart from linking the credit with marketing of produce. Consequently, four marketing societies at *mandi* centres, viz., Gotegaon, Kareli, Gadarwara and Narsimhapur were established. Co-operative marketing aims at eliminating middlemen, and trade malpractices associated with them. This in fact helps the producer to get better price for his produce. In furtherance of this Scheme, godown loans and subsidies were also granted for their construction. The societies are now being compelled to bring the produce of their members, at least to the extent of credit granted to them, to the marketing societies of their areas for sale.

Further in pursuance of the recommendations of the Rural Credit Survey Committee for channelizing the Government *taccavi* through the co-operatives, the State Government in the first instance implemented the recommendations in seven Districts of the State, one each in tne Commissioner's

revenue division including Narsimhapur. This has been extended to 14 more Districts now. Hence in the year 1962-63, *taccavi* finance to the extent of Rs. 24,14,839, against the allotment of Rs. 4,70,400, under various schemes, was distributed.

For making agricultural credit easily available to the agriculturists, the Bank has also opened one branch at Gotegaon in February, 1961, and another at Gadarwara in April, 1962.

Besides this, to encourage farmers in plantation of orchards, the Central Bank supplies orange, mango and lime-grafts to agriculturists through the agency of the Blocks. Mango and rose plants are prepared in the nursery garden of the Bank.

The Bank has been trying to make available cheap credit to its member-societies. Formerly, the societies used two obtain loans from the Central Co-operative Bank at 9 per cent, and advanced amount to their members at the rate of 11 to 12 per cent. In accordance with the recent decision, the Co-operative Central Bank, Narsimhapur, now advances loans to the affiliated societies at 6 per cent, and societies to their members at 9 per cent per annum, which has made them more popular.

Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank, Ltd., Narsimhapur

Established on the 13th May, 1935, the Narsimhapur Land Mortgage Bank extended its activities to three tahsils, two of the Narsimhapur District and Sohagpur tahsil of Hoshangabad, upto the 1st November, 1963. Sohagpur Tahsil has since been transferred to the newly established Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank Hoshangabad. Since its inception the Bank is working satisfactorily.

The total number of members from different classes in the year 1962-63 was 3,273 which increased to 3,541 in 1963-64. The share capital of the Bank in the same year was Rs. 54,151 and working capital was Rs. 12,68,557. The amount of deposits with the Bank in 1963-64 was Rs. 75,218. The Bank advances long-term loans to its members on the mortgage of their landed property for variety of purposes, such as :—

1. Improvement of land, that is *bandhan* in their fields.
2. Construction of wells and purchase of engine pumping-sets, etc., for watering the fields, and tractor for ploughing.
3. The purchase of land in order to effect consolidation of holding so as to secure more efficient and economic cultivation. (To ensure the utilisation of major portion of the loan for improvement of agriculture, it is now restricted to only 20 per cent of the total advance.)

For the purposes, as above, the Bank advanced fresh loan on an increasing scale repayable in 10 years in equated instalment.

The volume of business conducted by the Bank during 1956-57 to 1963-64 is given in the following Table :—

(In Rs.)

Year	Loans outstanding at the beginning of the year (Ist July)	Loans advanced during the year	Repayment received during the year
1955-56	5,35,608	37,470	90,669
1957-58	4,82,409	1,14,650	64,976
1958-59	5 32,083	1,29,098	1,11,404
1959-60	5,49,777	1,22,750	1,17,449
1960-61	5 55,077	1,49,000	1,13,735
1961-62	5,90,342	2,56,440	1,06,727
1962-63	7,40,054	3,70,500	1 33,344
1963-64	9,77,210	10,89,547	1,58,175

As for the rate of interest in the early years of the working of the Bank, loan at 6 per cent granted to its members, But as the Banks borrowing rate from the State Land Mortgage Bank increased gradually in the following years, the members of the Narsimhapur Land Mortgage Bank were also required to pay increased rate of 7 per cent, which prevailed from the year 1930-40 to November, 1961, In the year 1961 the rate of interest was again increased to 8 per cent. Further increase of one per cent was made in the rate of interest since Ist September, 1963, and as such the loan is now advanced by the Bank at 9 per cent. However, the old loans continue to bear the same rate of interest.

GENERAL AND LIFE INSURANCE

Prior to the establishment of Life Insurance Corporation of India in September, 1956, the life and general insurance business was conducted by certain insurance companies through their agents in the District, But consequent upon the nationalisation of life insurance business all Indian and foreign companies ceased to conduct business in life insurance. All such business was entrusted to the newly formed Life Insurance Corporation of India, with divisional branches at various places. However, general insurance is still carried on mainly by the Oriental Fire and General Insurance Company Ltd., through their agents at Narsimhapur.

Life Insurancc

After the nationalisation of life insurance business in the year 1957, three Development Officers were appointed on a salary basis by the Life

Insurance Corporation of India and attached to the branch-office at Itarsi till March, 1964. A Development Centre at Narsimhapur has been functioning from the first October, 1962, under an Assistant Branch Manager, The Corporation transacts, life insuranee business through a number of agents and field staff.

The Assistant Branch Manager at Narsimhapur furnished proposal to branch office at Itarsi who attended to all correspondence and premium collection work till 3 Ist March, 1964, thereafter the area of Narsimhapur District was transferred to the control of the branch office at Seoni The number of life insurance policies issued in the District in the year 1959 was 771, while in 1962 it rose to 844. The following table reveals the volume of business transacted by the Life Insurance Corporation of India in the District during the period 1959 to 1962 :—

Year	Business completed (Rs.)	Policies issued (No.)
1959	21,00,000	771
1960	24,66,000	781
1961	35,40,000	745
1962	37,20,000	844
1963	N. A.	N. A.
1964 (Ist April to December)	25,97,500	532

The Rural Area Pilot Insurance Scheme, the object of which is to achieve the target of one policy per family in rural area, is also being implemented in the District. Some spade work in this direction has already been done in the Block areas. Recently, the Life Insurance Corporation has also undertaken fire, marine and other general insurance business from April, 1964.

General Insurance

The general insurance business in the District is transacted by the agents of a number of general insurance companies, subsidiary to Life Insurance Corporation, British India General Insurance Company and Oriental Fire and General Insurance Company are controlling fair amount of business in the District. The business transacted include covering of risks of fire, accident, marine, workmen's compensation, transit, burglary, personal accidentss, etc. The total general insurance business conducted in the District is not forthcoming, However, the Oriental Fire and General Insurance Company, Ltd., collected a premium of Rs. 2,500 in the year 1963, through the appointed agents in Narsimhapur District.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

The case for providing state assistance to industries was presented for the first time in the report on the Industrial Survey of the Central Provinces, 1908-09 and later by the Indian Industrial Commission, 1916, But it was not till, 1933 that some concrete steps were taken. In that year the Central Provinces and Berar State Aid to Industries Act was passed. Later in 1946, while examining the effects of the same, the Provincial Industrial Committee of the Central Provinces observed that owing to the restrictive character of the provisions of the Act, neither did it prove of great assistance to industries nor in promoting new ones. Consequently, the Act was amended in 1946, and again in 1947, empowering the Government to form limited company with the object of providing industrial credit, and also enabling the State to run an industry as a State monopoly or as a State managed concern.

Since then the policy of the State has generally been to encourage the growth of small-scale industries, wherever possible, by giving them assistance under the State Aid to Industries Act, 1958 The Government also provides the grant of subsidy on the power consumed, and also for providing managerial assistance to industrial co-operative societies, etc. In Narsimhapur District, the extent of financial assistance given by the Government under the above Act, during the period 1959 to 1962 is given in the following Table:—

Name of Industry and Trade	Amount of loan and grant disbursed					
	1959 60		1960-61		1961-62	
	No. of cases	Amount (Rs.)	No. of cases	Amount (Rs.)	No. of cases	Amount (Rs.)
Leather indutry	3	3,0[illegible]0	4	1,400	3	950
Brick industry	2	4,750	1	250	—	—
Bamboo industry	2	1,275	1	300	—	—
Carpentry industry	1	925	3	1,300	4	2,900
Dyeing industry	—	—	2	1,500	—	—
Rope making industry	—	—	1	150	—	—
Blacksmity	—	—	9	5 550	5	1,450
Rubber industry	—	—	1	400	—	—
Battery charging	—	—	1	950	—	—
Cycle seat-making industry	—	—	—	—	3	2,500
Umberella-making industry	—	—	—	—	1	500
Agarbatti industry	—	—	—	—	5	1,250
Toys industry	—	—	—	—	1	1,000
Stone industry	—	—	—	—	1	3,000
Lac industry	—	—	—	—	1	500
Fruit preservation	—	—	—	—	—	—

Another agency for the supply of long and medium-terms credit to qualified small-scale industrial concerns in the State is the Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation, estabished in the year 1956. The Corporation grants loan against adequate security, such as, first legal mortgage of land, industrial plant, etc. No loan has been sanctioned by the Corporation to any industry in the District till January, 1964, although two applications were received by the Corporation which were withdrawn by the applicants.

CURRENCY AND COINAGE

The earliest reference that is found about currency of the area relates to 15th Century, when Sangram Shah ruled over the region and built the famous fort of Chauragarh in the District. The *putlian* gold coins bearing samvat year 1570, issued by Sangram Shah, were excavated in the District, As the territory comprising Narsimhapur District changed hands between the Maratha Pandits of Sagar and Bhonslas of Nagpur, it may be surmised that 'Nagpur Rupee' and 'Balashahee rupee' would have been current during the period when Marathas ruled over the area, It seems that after the region was cedad to the British, the coins in circulation in British India were introduced in this region also.

A landmark in the currency reforms was the introduction of Decimal System of currency, in April, 1957. The switch-over, after initial difficulty in the transitional period has become popular now. Trading community was however, quick to follow it, though till recently prices continued to be quoted, especially in rural areas, in the old currency, But as the old currency has gradually been demonctized, the change-over is complete, and all transactions are now being carried on in new currency, both in rural and urban areas.

TRADE AND COMMERCE

Course of Trade

Narsimhapur is predominantly an agricultural area, producing mainly grains, pulses, garden-crops, timber, *tendu* leaves for bidi mauufacturing, *mahua*, as forest-prodcue sunn-hemp, etc. But in the past the export trade of the District was not of any significance. At the time of 30 Years Settlement in the year 1866, C. Grant wrote that trade in Narsimhapur was altogether unimportant. The only export of any consequence was cotton. When the withdrawal of the military force from the valley in 1822 induced so marked a depression on the grain market, it became necessary to look seriously into the remaining resources of the District. It was concluded that the net surplus revenue to be obtained by Government from Narsimhapur must depend chiefly, if not solely, upon cotton,[1] The local cotton, though not of any particular quality,

1. Nursingpore Settlement Report, 1866, p. 58.

appears to have always commanded a market, for in the 1833 the annual exports were estimated at 19,000 maunds.[1] On the out-break of the American War, the area under cotton largely increased in Narsimhapur, as elsewhere, and in 1863 it was estimated that it amounted to a sixth of the total acreage under crop. After this period, its cultivation greatly decreased. The only trading towns at that time were Narsimhapur and Gadarwara, and Narsimhapur was apparently the chief centre for trade. In the year 1864-65, its imports were valued at Rs. 9.25 lakhs and its export at nearly Rs. 8.5 lakhs. The importance of Kareli town increased since the opening of the railway line. The distribution of foreign merchandise was at that time effected by means of a large fair at Burman. The merchan dise brought to the fair in the year 1864 was estimated by the Deputy Commissioner to be worth about six lakhs of rupees, of which more than half was sold. On the opening of the railway line from Bombay to Jabalpur in the year 1870, there was an immediate expansion of trade in the District and in the 'eighties there was large export of wheat to Europe. This has resulted in the rapid increase of the wealth of the District. Though the District at that time a part of Hoshangabad District made it was considered, the most prosperous area of the Province. From the date of the opening of the railway upto 1889, the produce from Sagar District was also brought to Kareli, which soon became the most important commercial centre, as the Kareli-Sagar road was also opened for traffic in 1877-78. The peak exports were recorded in the year 1885 when they amounted to 25.5 lakh maunds, and the imports over 4 lakhs of maunds. Wheat export alone accounted for over 16 lakh maunds in this year. As soon as direct railway communication was opened with Sagar in 1889, the export trade of Narsimhapur tahsil decreased by 40 per cent and the import trade by 83 per cent.[2]

In Gadarwara Tahsil also there was a marked decline in consequence of the opening of the railway. However, the average annual rail-borne trade of the District during the period 1889-91 amounted to 14.2 lakh maunds of exports and 3.4 lakh maunds of imports, which was double the average of the six years (1871-76) immediately after the opening of the railway, and a still greater increase over the former trade by road. During the year 1889-91 the average exports of grain were nearly 12 lakh maunds and those of oil seeds about 79,671 maunds. The import of salt was about 1,00,564 maunds cotton goods 8,174 maunds and kerosene-oil 9,000 maunds.[3]

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1. Ibid.
2. Ibid, 1885-94, p. 21.
3. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, pp. 139-141.

The trade in the District decreased from 18 lakh maunds in 1889-91 to 9 lakh maunds in the year 1899 on account of successive bad seasons. It recovered to over 16 lakh maunds in the year 1903. In the year 1904, the total value of the trade was Rs. 56.5 lakhs; the export of grain, pulses and oil-seeds being smaller in this year. Grain, pules, raw-cotton, oilseeds, sun-hemp and jute were the important commodities of exports. Wheat had been the stapple produce of the District, accounting for about of half to two-thirds of the whole bulk of exports. Jowar was exported to a small extent, while the District imported rice for its own consumption, the quantity grown locally being insufficient for its needs. Gadarwara was the principal centre for exports of ghee, and it was sent to Calcutta and Bombay. The timber and fire-wood amounting to Rs. 42,000 in the year 1903, and Rs. 1,02,000 in the year 1904, were exported principally from Narsimhapur and Babai stations. Timber was sent to East Nimar District and to Bombay. A little lac was also exported to Northern India. Coal from the Mohpani mines was also exported. The whole out-put of coal was sold to the then Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Small quanties were also sold to the factories in Nimar and Jabalpur.

The quantam imports had been small during the years 1889-91. During this period the imports amounted to 3,37,000 maunds while in the year 1904 they were 3,20,000 maunds. The cotton manufactures, hemp and jute manufactures, kerosene oil, grain and pulses, twisted-yarn, brass-vessels, etc., were the important articles imported. Brass vessels were imported from Jabalpur and Poona, and also from northern India. Iron implements were obtained from Panagar in Jabalpur and boxes of sheet-iron and other articles from Burhanpur. Tyres for cart-wheels, bars, fencing-nails and other articles were obtained from Bombay. Among other metals imported were lead, zinc and tin. The import of salt in the year 1904 was 77,000 maunds, valued at Rs. 2.48 lakhs. The import of sugar amounted to 83,000 maunds, valued at Rs. 6.05 lakhs in the same year. Besides these items, vegetables, fruits, indigo, chillies, ginger, tobacco, etc., were also imported.

Consequent upon the opening of Sagar-Bina railway, the Sagar trade traffic with Kareli-dwindled considerably since 1889. But the imports and exports generally increased and Narsimhapur which was a part of Hoshangabad District was considered to be, the most prosperous part of the Province. According to the rail-borne trade statistics for the years 1923-25 the exports averaged to 15 lakhs of maunds, valued Rs. 73.5 lakhs, whereas imports amounted to only 4½ lakhs of maunds, bringing the total trade to 19.5 lakh maunds which was much above the average triennium trade of the year 1889-91. Gram was exported well above six lakh maunds per annum, valued at over Rs. 27 lakhs and wheat about 3.17 lakh maunds valued at Rs. 18.22 lakhs. Import of grain consisted mainly of rice

as the District did not produce sufficient quantity of rice for its own requirements. Other principal imports were cotton manufactures, metals, sugar, kerosene oil, etc.

The pattern of import and export trade of the District has not changed much so far. Cotton, of course, has since ceased to be an important item of export trade, while machine goods have assumed importance in import trade of the District.

As railways are the principal meens of transport, most of the exports are made through the rail-heads at Gadarwara, Kareli, Narsimhapur and Gotegoan. The trade through other stations is, however, insignificant. The principal items of export are pulses, grains, oil-seeds, timber, bidi-leaves, charcoal, sunn-hemp and sunn-hemp cloth, *chironji*, (on a small scale) lemons, oranges, hides and bones. The main items of import are articles of daily necessity, viz., soap, cloth, iron implements, brass utensils, sugar, gur, salt, wheat, rice, umbrellas, books and stationary, medicines, tiles, sewing-machines, type-writers, pumping-engines and other electrical goods, kerosene oil, diesel-oil, groundnut, and other varieties of oils, pipes, cement, lime, leather products, etc.

The Table showing the volume of import trade during the years 1958 to 1964 through the main stations in the District has been given in Appendix A.

Export of Cereals

According to local account, wheat is generally exported to Bombay, some *mandis* of Madras State, Surendra Nagar, Jamnagar and Ahemedabad in Gujrat State, and places like Poona, Bangalore, Jalgaon, Nagpur, Allahabad, Amraoti, Akola and Buldana. Jowar is exported to places like Surendra Nagar, Jalgaon, Akola, Pulgaon, Allahabad and Jaunpur. Though maize has local demand, it is sometimes exported to Allahabad, Jaunpur and Delhi.

Export of Pulses

Gram has a good demand from Maharahtra (Nagpur, Pulgaon, Yeotmal, Akola, Wardha, Hinghanghat, Jalgaon, Bhusawal and Poona), Gujrat (Ahmedabad, Madhi, Surendra Nagar), Kerala (Calicut, Mahbubanagar) and Hyderabad. It is also sent to Madras, Jharia, Dhanbad, Calcutta, and Kolhapur. Urd is exported, particularly, to places like Delhi, Madras, Calicut, Kerala, and Calcutta. Moong is, however, mostly consumed locally. The split-moong is sent to Calcutta. Batra has a demand from Bombay, Culcutta and from some *mandis* in Kerala State, Cochin, Calicut, Trivandrum, and Kolhapur. Teora is exported to Bombay, Nagpur and Hyderabad and split-

teora to places like Cochin, Calicut. Batra-batri pulse is exported to Bombay. Calcutta and Madras, tuar to Nagpur, Bombay and Jabalpur, huskless gola-masur to Assam, Silligudi and Calcutta, and split-masur to Sholapur, Poona and Bombay.

Export of Oilseeds

The District is producing considerable quantity of oilseeds, but as it has no big oil-crushing industry, most of it is exported to different parts of India. Sesamum (*tilli*) is exported to places like Madras, Trichur, Trivandrum Calicut, Delhi, Agra, Kanpur, Ajmer, Bombay, and Poona. *Alsi* has a demand from Nagpur and Calcutta and ram-*tilli*, from Nagpur, Bilimora and Jabalpur.

Export of Other Articles

Rajgir is generally exported to Bombay, Calcutta, Allahabad, Faizabad, Kanpur and Benaras, and sunn-hemp, is exported to Calcutta and Bombay. Timber is generally exported to Delhi, Ahmedabad and Poona, fodder, mostly to Allahabad and Varanasi, and charcoal to Bombay.

Imported Articles

Gur (jaggery) is imported from Barabanki, Hapur, Meerut, Lucknow, salt from Kharaghoda (Saurashtra), mill-made cloth generally from Nagpur and Gwalior, handloom-cloth mostly from Jabalpur, sugar from Kanpur and Faizabad and groundnut-oil from places like Pandhurna and Khandwa. Coconuts are imported from Bombay and Calicut. Tiles are imported from Hoshangabad, limestone from Katni, stationery and hosiery articles from Delhi and Bombay.

TRADE CENTRES

Two important trading centres in the District in the last Century, which have more or lesss retained their importance even now, are Narsimhapur and Gadarwara. The former town, for sometime happened to be known as "Chhota-Gadarwara" before the present name was given. Narsimhapur was termed in Grant's Settlement as "an entrepot for the rest of the District."[1] Other important markets were located at "Chindwara, Kouriya on the main road, and Singhpoor, Puloha, Sainkhera, and Barha in the interior."[2] Birman fair (present Burman), provided an annual market to the District where considerable trade was transacted. During the settlement operations of the year. 1885-94, "Chhindwara, Amgaon and Dangidhana in Narsimhapur tahsil and at Tendukhera, Sainkhera and Khulri in Gadarwara Tahsil"[3] were reported

1. Nursingpore Settlement Report. 1866, p. 59.
2. Ibid, p. 59.
3. Ibid, 1885-94, p. 22.

to be places where large cattle marts were found. A book written in the year 1922, refers to Tendukheda, a noted weekly market for indigenous iron goods, apart from Chichli, Babai and Gadarwara markets.[1]

Mandis and Markets

There are regular markets at Narsimhapur, Kareli, Gadarwara and Chhota-Chindwara (Gotegaon) where whole-sale transactions in grain and other commodities also take place. Apart from these, numerous weekly markets in the District are also held. In the whole-sale *mandis* of four towns, mainly, transactions in grains, pulses, oil-seeds, salt, sugar, gur, timber, etc., are carried on through *arhatias*, commission-agents. In the grain-*mandis* the produce is auctioned in heaps, at rates expresssed in terms of maund or *mani* formerly and in quintals now a days. The highest bidder is accepted by the *arhatia*, on behalf of the owner of the grain, charging some commission for his services. Gotegaon grain market was established in the year 1946, and is situated at Danganj. It remains active throughout the year except in rainy season. The Narsimhapur market is located at Station Gunj and mostly deals in timber, charcoal and grain. The transactions in grains are generally made through *arhatias*. The grain markets at Kareli and Gadarwara are yet other important markets in the District. Jawahar Gunj market at Gadarwara largely deals in pulses, and is managed by the municipality.

All the above towns have associations of grain merchants who control the entire grain trade in the District.

Rural Marketing Centres

Besides these there are a large number of rural marketing centres in the District where brisk business in articles of local consumption is transacted on market days. Russell in the earlier Gazetteer of the District noted "Amgaon, Dangidhana and Chhindwara in the Narsinghapur tahsil and at Tendukheda Kaudiya and Sainkheda in Gadarwara tahsil" as important weekly markets where people of surrounding villages assemble to purchase their requirements. These markets were noted for cattle trade. Chhindwara and Tendukheda markets were also noted for transactions of grain and iron-utensils, respectively. "Numerous other bazars were also held, there being 30 in all in each tahsil' during the first decade of the present century. Most of these places have even now retained their importance. Presently, there are 62 weekly or fortnightly markets in the District. Tahsilwise break up of the same is given below :—

1. Rai G.P. Narsingh Nayan, 1922, p. 37.

Tahsil	No. of Weekly or Fortnightly Markets	
	Urban	Rural
Gadarwara	1	34
Narsimhapur	3	24
Total	4	58

The names of villages, alongwith the location where these markets are being held, are given in Table II in the Appendix. However, grain markets at Mungwani, Nayagaon, Amgaon, Niwari, Suatola in Narsimhapur Tahsil, and Gadarwara, Babai-Kalan, Basuria, Paloha, Sihora, Kalyanpur in Gadawara Tahsil are important.

Fairs and *Melas*

Fairs and *melas* have traditionally been associated with large gatherings of the community on religious or festive occasions, when a brisk trade in a variety of goods is combined with social gaiety. In rural area, where there is neither a demand nor the facility for a permanent marketing centre, the periodical fairs on different occasions for the selling of the produce of all the neighbouring villages are organised. These fairs vary in size and duration in which persons from distant places take part. The earliest reference in the District relates to 1866, when C. Grant wrote that "the distribution of foreign necessaries have been effected a good deal by means of an extensive fair, which is held yearly in November/December on the sands of Nerbudda at Birmhan."[1] Later Russell in the earlier Gazetteer also referred to the annual fairs at Barmhan (Barman), Barehta, Sankal, and a few other places also.[2] The Barman fair has been of considerable importance since long. The place is considered sacred, as it is on the confluence of the Narmada and the Warahi rivers.

Even after a Century of its existence Barman fair has not lost its commercial importance. Writing about the magnitude of trade, C. Grant in the Settlement Report, 1866 observed that in the year 1864, merchandise to the value of six lakhs of rupees was brought for sale to it, of which, more than half was actually sold. Later in the year 1892, De Brett stated that goods brought to the fair were valued at Rs. 2.37 lakhs, and goods sold at Rs. 1.57 lakhs. About half a million persons attended the fair. During the 'twenties of the present Century the importance of the fair was again emphasised by C.B.Rai, who in *Narsinh-Nayan* affirmed the commercial importance of the fair.

1. Nursingpore Settlement Report, 1866. p. 60.
2. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, pp. 137-138.

Presently, the fair is managed by the Janapada Sabha, Gadarwara and is attended by about one lakh persons. Other fairs of importance are Barehta, called the Pandav-Mela, lasting for a week in Narsimhapur Tahsil, and Saknalpur fair, lasting for 20 days, attended by about ten thousand person in Gadarwara Tahsil. A detailed list of important fairs and *melas* is also given in the Appendix.

CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING

Consequent upon the recommendations of the Rural Credit Survey Committee for integrating the co-operative credit with marketing, the State Government sanctioned a scheme for the development of co-operative marketing during the Second Plan period. Accordingly, Narsimhapur, Gotegaon, and Gadarwara Agricultural Associations were converted into the co-operative marketing societies, and Kareli Co-operative Marketing Society was also organised sometime later. Thus, before the close of the Second Plan period, in all four co-operative marketing societies came into existence, and started working. In the first instance Agricultural Associations of Gadarwara and Gotegaon, established on the 12th December, 1946, and the 17th July, 1949 respectively, were converted into Co-operative Marketing Societies in August, 1957. Five months later on the 14th January, 1958, the Agricultural Association Narsimhapur established earlier on the 12th December, 1944, was also converted into the Co-operative Marketing Society. The fourth marketing society also came into existence at Kareli, a year after, on the 28th January, 1959.

It is clear from the above, that all these marketing societies except Kareli, emerged out of the existing Agricultural associations after the adoption of Marketing Scheme in the year 1956-57. Now these societies, apart from dealing in agricultural implements, fertilizers, sugar, cement and consumer's goods such as cloth, soap, ghee, oil, etc. These societies also provide a number of other facilities to its members apart from ensuring fair price of the produce, for which they also act as *arhtias*. They provide storage facilities to its members, and advance credit against pledge. Correct weighing is ensured and unauthorized deductions are eliminated in all transactions.

The members are being advised to avail themselves of this service in disposing of their produce, at least to the extent of credit provided to them by the society. Some headway has been made in this direction, and the societies are increasingly handling the produce of the members. Some members have also taken advantage of pledge facilities, and sold their produce when better prices were offered.

The increasing State participation in the share capital of the marketing

societies, during the recent years may be seen in the following Table :—

Name of the Co-operative Marketing Society	Date of registration	Financial assistance given upto 30-6-1963			
		Share capital (Rs.)	Godown loan (Rs.)	Godown subsidy (Rs.)	Staff subsidy (Rs.)
Gadarwara	23.8.57	20,000	15,000	5,000	4,150
Gotegaon	25.8.57	25,000	15,000	5,000	4,150
Narsimhapur	24.1.58	25,000	15,000	5,000	5,000
Kareli	28.1.59	20,000	15,000	5,000	4,871

STATE TRADING

The growing concern of the State Government in maintaining the price line of essential commodities in the recent years has led it to increasingly participate in the procurement of these commodities to its people at fair price.

While rigours of the control measures during the Second World War were still fresh in the minds of the people, there was a sugar sacarcity in the District in the year 1959-60, as elsewhere, and the State Government again introduced the system of distribution through fair price shops, both in the urban as well as in the rural areas of the District.

Similar shops were again established when wheat shortage set the prices on increase in the District in the year 1962. From February to April, 1962, a fair price shop each, functioned at Narsimhapur, Gotegaon, Kareli and Gadarwara towns, and also at Karekbel, Chichli and Salichowka villages in the District. These shops were to distribute wheat at a fair price.

Again at the time of sugar scarcity in the year 1963, these shops were revived in a more elaborate way, and as many as 103 such shops were opened in the District. The tahsil-wise break-up of the same is given below :—

Tahsil	Towns	No. of fair price shops
Narsimhapur		72
	Narsimhapur	13
	Gotegaon	4
	Kareli	5
	Rural areas	50
Gadarwara		31
	Gadarwara	12
	Rural areas	19
Total		103

These fair price shops function under the over-all control and supervision of the Collector. The stocks of the commodity are allotted by the Collector to each tahsil for controlled distribution.

MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATIONS

Trade and commerce, being an important economic activity contributing to the wealth and prosperity of the people. In order to foster closer co-operation among the members of the same trade or industry and to protect the common interest of the mercantile community, the grain dealers of the District formed their associations. The first trade association that was formed was the Grain Merchants' Association at Gotegaon, which after an initial working of eight years became defunct in the year 1959-60. It was again revived in that year with eleven members. Grain, being an important item of trade, had largest number of associations, and practically at every important grain centre the association was formed. These associations at Narsimhapur, Kareli and Gadarwara, however, ceased to exist later owing to some reason or the other. Apart from these, the bidi workers and jewellers have also formed their own associations, at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara. The latter has especially played a important part in protecting the interests after recent Gold Control measures.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Old Units

Russell in the earlier Gazetteer mentions the following different forms of weights and measures, that were in use then in Narsimhapur Tahsil.

"One *pao* = 20 tolas.

One *pai* = 2½ *paos* or 50 tolas.

One *kuro* = 8 *pais* or 5 sears.

One *mani* = 32 *kuros* or 4 maunds.

One *manyasi* = 100 *manis* or 400 maunds.

"In Narsinghapur and Kandeli another *pai* is used of 18 *chittacks* or 90 tolas. In that case the *kuro* contains 8 *pais* and the *mani* 18 *kuros* or 4 maunds 2 seers. Grain is sold by measurement both in the towns and in

the interior. But in Chhindwara and Kareli, the ordinary Government weights are being introduced. These are the seer of 80 tolas, the *paseri* of 5 seers and the *mani* of 32 *passeris* or 4 maunds. Corn is also sold by weight in Gadarwara town. In the interior of Gadarwara tahsil, the measurements are as follows :—

One *pai*	=	90 tolas.
One small *kuro*	..	4½ *pais* or 5 seers 1 *chittack*.
One large *kuro* or *sei*	..	8 *pais* or 9 seers.
One *mani*	=	18 *seis* or 32 small *kuros* or 4 maunds 2 seers.

"This is practically the same measurement as that already mentioned as current in Narsimhapur town. The *sei* or large *kuro* is used in the tracts to the north of the railway and west of the Shakkar river, and the small *kuro* over the rest of the tahsil. Formerly a small *pai* of 60 tolas was also used in the same tracts as the small *kuro*, so that the *kuro*, as usual contained 8 *pais*. But this measure has fallen into disuse. The measures employed are not stamped but are generally made of brass, and are produced at Chichli. The weights given as equivalents to the above measures of capacity are for wheat, and, of course, they vary for other grains, of which an equivalent bulk may be lighter or heavier than wheat. The area of fields is spoken of in *manis* of seed-grain and one *mani* of wheat is sown in 2½ acres. This measurement, however, includes the presents given at sowing-time to village servants and others. *Ghi* sugar, salt and metals are sold by weight. In Narsinghpur tahsil the ordinary seer of 80 tolas is in general use, but in Gadarwara a seer of 95 tolas is frequently employed. The latter is called the *pakka* and the former *katcha* seer. In the case of gold and silver the tola in Narsinghpur is equivalent to one rupee's weight and 2½ *rattis*. One *tola* contains 12 *mashas* and one *masha* 8 *rattis*. The *tola* is therefore equivalent to 1.03 rupees. In Gadarwara the same tola is used for gold as in Narsinghpur, while for silver the ordinary tola equivalent to rupee is employed.[1]

Prior to the introduction of the 'Metric System' of weights and measures, the Central Provinces and Berar Weights and Measures of Capacity Act, 1928

1. Ibid. pp. 136-37.

(II of 1928) was in force in this District. The use of the following units of weight and capacity measures were allowed under the Act.

The primary standard of weight was called a *ser* (a weight of metal). Similarly, the primary standard of measure of capacity was called *paili*, equivalent to five-sixteenths of a gallon of water.

The *ser* and *paili* were the units of weights and measures of capacity from which all other weights and measures of capacity were derived :—

1/80th part of a *ser*	=	one *tola*.
40 *sers*	=	one *maund*.
One half part of the *paili*	=	*adholi*.
One *katha*	=	four *pailies*.
One *kuroh*	=	eight *pailies*.

Metric System

These weights and measures continued to be in use until the introduction of the "Metric System". The Central Government enacted the Standard Weights and Measures Act, 1956 for the introduction of the 'Metric System' in the Country. Accordingly, the Madhya Pradesh Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1959 was enacted by the State Government. To ensure a smooth switch-over to the new system, two inspectors were appointed in the District in the year 1961, one each in exclusive charge of each of the two tahsils of Gadarwara and Narsimhapur. These weights were made applicable in this District from the 1st April, 1960, with two years transitional period during which the old weights could also be used side by side with the new metric weights.

The provisions regarding the unit of length were made applicable with one years' transitional period from the 1st September, 1961, and that of units of capacity from the 1st April, 1961, with two years transitional period, after which, the use of the same was made compulsory.

From the 1st April, 1963, the District has completely switched over to the new system. The business community in towns like Narsimhapur, Gadarwara, Kareli, Gotegaon, etc., has completely adopted these weights and measures. However, in small villages old weights are also being kept by the traders alongwith new ones. As for capacity measures, the position is not vary

satisfactory in villages and small market places in the District where some difficulty is being experienced.

The reaction of the general public in Narsimhapur to the introduction of these weights and measures has generally been satisfactory. It has helped the whole-sale dealers in the State to a great extent in eliminating some long standing difficulties in quoting prices in markets, inside and outside the State. The simple calculations of prices, etc., afforded by the new system have had a very favourable effect on the common man.

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

The Communication lines of the District consist of the roads and the railways. The roads, running spine-like through its boundaries, consist of the National Highways, State Highways, Major District Roads, Minor District Roads and others which have made remote places accessible and distances traversable, while the railways, running East to West through the District, have accelerated the movement of men and goods.

OLD TIME TRADE ROUTES AND HIGHWAYS

Regarding old time trade routes and highways in the District very little information is available. But the existence of the capital of Raj Gonds at Chauragarh (situated at a distance of 20 miles, south-east of Gadarwara in the District) in the 16th Century A. D., indicates the possibility of the existence of some trade routes during the period, between this District and other places. "Abul Fazl expressly tells us that the seat of government was at Chauragarh, to which place it was moved, presumably, by Sangram Shah as he is credited with having built the fort."[1] The fact that Chauragarh was within the Gond kingdom is proved by the *Sati* pillar at Damoh which "Shows that his authority extended at least 50 miles north of his capital. The fort of Chauragarh (which Sleeman credits him with having built) was almost certainly in his possession 70 miles to the West of Garha."[2]

Garha-Katanga, like the rest of Central India, was unable to escape an almost complete domination upon the Peninsula by Alaudin Khalji and his successors. Between the period 1294 to 1344 atleast ten expeditions were organised by Emperors at Delhi to the south and this fact alone compels one to infer that Garha-Katanga covered the lines of communication between Hindustan and the Southern India. "On the very first occasion when Alauddin invaded the Deccan, he set out from Karra (not far from Allahabad on the

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1. C. U. Wills, Raj Gond Maharajas of the Satpura Hills, p. 50.
2. Ibid, p. 46.

Ganges) and made his way through the extensive forests which still fill the space between that place and Berar."[1] This description along with a statement of Abul Fazl that "when Chauragarh the capital of Garha Katanga was taken by Asaf Khan in 1564, A.D. he secured one hundred jars full of Alauddin *Ashrafis*,"[2] confirms the position of Chauragarh as the State Capital.

These are the only reliable accounts. regarding the existence of routes in the District prior to the advent of the British.

History of the Development of Roads

The necessity of developing district roads in a systematic way was realised by the Administration for the first time in the year 1887. In that year the Provincial Government decided to prepare specific district road schemes for all the districts of the then Provinces. "Previous to its preparation, there did not exist in a concise form any record showing the length, style of construction and annual cost of maintenance of finished roads in each district of the provinces, nor with perhaps one or two exceptions had any reliable forecast been made of the requirements of each district in the way of new lines of communications, the class of work to be followed in their design and the cost of their construction."[3] As early as 1885 the following roads were existing in the District.[4]

1. Road from Sagar to Kareli.
2. Feeder roads from Bazar of Singhpur to Narsimhapur.
3. Feeder roads from Amgaon to Kareli.
4. Feeder roads from Khulri to Bohani.

These were the only metalled roads in the District. In the same year under the category of unmetalled roads the following roads were mentioned.

1. Jabalpur-Bombay road.
2. Narsimhapur-Lakhnadon road.
3. Narsimhapur-Sankal-Chhindwara.
4. Burman-Tendukheda (under construction).
5. Other feeder roads to different villages.

The following description in the same report gives the details of some of these roads.

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1. Ibid, p. 30.
2. Ibid,
3. C. P. Administration Report, 1888-89, p. 53.
4. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1885-94, p. 20.

"The old Saugor road branches off from the new road near Bamhni on the northern border of the district, and crosses the Nerbudda at Korpani. This portion of the road is fairly good, but from the Nerbudda river to Narsinghpur it passes through a number of ravines near the junction of the Sher and Umar rivers with the Nerbudda, and is consequently very difficult for carts. It is continued to the Chhindwara border, but the Ghats on this portion are hardly suited to wheeled traffic. A road has been made to Lakhnadon in the Seoni District. It leaves the Bombay road about four miles east of Narsinghpur, and passes through Bachai and Mungwani; from Narsinghpur old tracks run to Sankal and from Sankal to Chhindwara, and another passes through Srinagar to the Seoni District. A road is also under construction from Birmhan to Tendukhera, which will help the open northern portion of the district. In the north-western corner of the district runs the old customs line, formerly a dense hedge made to prevent the admission of contraband salt into British territory. It follows a course parallel to the border of the district from the Saugor to the Hoshangabad border. The hedge has now almost disappeared, but the land on which it stood has came to be used as a road. From the town of Gadarwara tracks are found radiating to the large villages in the neighbourhood and connecting it with the Saugor road at Birmhan. These unmetalled tracks are quite sufficiently good for the fair-weather traffic of the district. The black soil is, when dry, extremely hard, and does not crumble easily; consequently it will stand a good deal of traffic. In the rains it is unfortunately absolutely useless for carts. When I (F. G. Sly) came to the district I found that it was difficult in many places to take a cart from village to village the reason being that the malguzars had failed to keep their roads open, and had either enreached upon them themselves, or had allowed them to be broken up by other cultivators. The matter was, however, taken up by me in cencert with the district authorities, and it is hoped that the malguzars now understand that it is their duty to see that the roads are kept open."[1]

On the 30th November, 1896, famine relief works were started in the District. "Narsinghpur and Hoshangabad were the two districts in the province where the people showed themselves most ready to resort to relief works on roads; and during the hot weather 70 to 90 per cent of these on relief in these district were so relieved."[2]

An account of the road system in the District in the year 1968 is given below.

"The feeder roads to Gadarwara, Kareli, Chhindwara, and Narsinghpur

1. Ibid.

2. Report on the Famine in Central Provinces, 1896-97, pp. 72-73.

are the most important trade routes. Previous to the opening of the railway to Saugor, Kareli was a place of considerable importance as it was the station for Saugor, with which it is connected by a metalled road crossing the Nerbudda at Barmhan. It now only retains the trade of the southern part of the Rehli tahsil and the centre of Narsinghpur. A metalled road is projected from Narsinghpur town to Lakhnadon in Seoni District, and has been constructed for 17 miles; but it passes through poor country and there is not much traffic on it. The old road from Jubbulpore to Bombay runs through the District, but as it adjoins and is parallel to the railway, it is no longer of any importance. The length of metalled roads in the District is 79 miles, and of unmetalled roads 135 miles. The expenditure on maintenance in 1903-04 was Rs. 53 000. The Public Works Department maintains 94 miles of the more important roads and the District Council the remainder. There are avenues of trees on 117 miles."[1]

During the scarcity and famine relief operations of 1920-21,[2] collection of road material and earth work was undertaken in Narsimhapur District. Under this category the work on Narsimhapur-Batiagarh road (gross actual cost of Rs. 7,144 instead of normal cost of Rs. 4,953). (2) Narsimhapur-Kareli road Gross actual cost of Rs. 1,677 instead of normal cost of Rs 1,472, (3) Narsimhapur-Lakhnadon and Narsimhapur-Station road, (Gross actual cost of Rs. 3,719 instead of normal cost of Rs. 3,359) as commenced.

In 1923 the Burman-Tendukheda Road was constructed. "During the period of Mr. De. Brett's settlement a first class road branching off to the North West from the Saugor Road at Burman on the north bank of the Nerbudda was constructed upto Tendukheda, 16 miles distant from Burman in the north-west corner of the Trans-Nerbudda portion of the district."

"Since the last settlement, first class roads have been constructed from Narsinghapur to Seoni, from Narsinghpur to Chhindwara, and from Gadarwara to Sainkheda in the north-west corner of the Cis-Nerbudda portion of the district. There are now very few villages in the grain producing tracts of the district more than six or seven miles distant from a first class road leading to a wholesale market and railway station. A very large majority of the villages south of the Nerbudda, particularly in the *haveli* are not more than 5 miles distant from a railway station."[3]

The road construction programme made considerable headway on account of the impetus given to it by the Narsimhapur Plan, 'The Post-War Road Development Programme', prepared for the Central Provinces and Berar in

1. Imperial Gazetteer of India, Vol. XVIII, 1908, pp. 391-92.
2. Brief Report on Famine and Scarcity Works, undertaken by P. W. D. in C. P. and Berar, 1920-21, pp. 25-26.
3. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1923-26, p. 29.

1947-48, and 'Five Year Plan' development of the Central Provinces and Berar (1947-52) and high priority assigned to this segment of National Development in the three consecutive Five Year Plans for economic development. The table below gives the position of roads in the year 1908 and the subsequent progress up to the year 1962.

Year	Length of Roads				Expenditure
	Metalled		Unmetalled		(Rs.)
	(Miles)	(Kms.)	(Miles)	(Kms.)	
1908	79.00	127 19	135.00	217.26	33,000
1956	84.93	136.68	32.12	51.69	N. A.
1957	84.93	136.68	32.12	5.69	N. A.
1958	121.31	195.23	60.25	96.96	1,02,041
1959	132.93	213.93	49.12	79.05	1,21,923
1960	154.06	247.93	46.75	75.23	95,680
1961	156.68	252.15	44.12	71.00	1,19,064
1962	168.50	271.17	44.12	71.00	1,60,011
1963	190.62	306.77	44.50	71.56	2,28,522

Note :— Figures for metalled roads for the year 1963 relate to State highways and Major District Roads.

Road Schemes During the Plan Period

A Second Plan Schemes

1. Schemes of Improvement of Roads

Under the Second Five Year Plan two roads in the District were selected under this head.

(a) Improvement of Kereli–Hatwans Road

This road actually forms a part of Hoshangabad-Narsimhapur road and the total length to be improved was 22 miles (35.22 kms) at an estimated cost of Rs. 15.10 lakhs. The total actual expenditure incurred over it upto year 1960-61 was Rs. 13,89,840 and 21 miles (33.80 kms of road length) was improved. For the improvement of remaining one mile (1.61 kms) a provision of Rs. 1,00,000 was made in the year 1961-62. Thus the major work of improvement including construction of bridges and culverts was mostly completed during Second Plan.

(b) Improvement of Narsimhapur- Shahpura Section

The section actually forms a part of the old Bombay-Jabalpur road. The total length to be improved was 26.62 miles (42.84 kms) at an estimated cost of Rs. 21.87 lakhs. The total actual expenditure incurred over it upto the year 1960-61 was Rs. 10,39,646. During this period work of bank formation,

collection of boulder metal, boulder soling, metal consolidation and earth work was almost completed. Work remained to be taken up on 3.50 miles (5.63 kms) and also the required construction of bridges and culverts.

(2) Schemes of Construction of Roads

The work of construction of the following roads was commenced during the Second Plan period.

(a) Gadarwara-Gotitoria Road

Under this scheme is also included the construction of a link road to Chichli village. The total length to be constructed was 14.75 miles (23.74 kms) out of which the main road forms a length of 12.62 miles (20.31 kms) and the link road, a length of 2.13 miles (3.43 kms). During the Second Plan period construction of 8.37 miles (14.27 km) was completed. Raising work was completed from miles 4 (6.44 kms) to 13.12 (21.11 kms). During this period the work of bank fromation, boulder soling. metal consolidation and earth work was completed over almost the whole length. The work yet to be done included construction of remaining length and bridges and culverts on the mian road as well as the link-road. The total estimated cost of the whole work was Rs 6,94,550. The work was carried over in the Third Five Year Plan period.

(b) Construction of Gotegaon-Bagaspur Road

The total length of the road to be constructed was 4 miles (6.44 kms.). The whole length of the road was constructed during the Second Five Year Plan. The work of coating, etc., was carried over in the Third Plan Period.

(c) Black Topping of the Surface of Existing Roads

During the Second Plan period, black topping of the surface of important roads was taken up and 45 miles (72.42 Km.) of roads were black topped during the said period.

ROAD TRANSPORT

In the Indian Roads Congress Session of the 1943, held at Nagpur, roads were classified into the following broad categories, viz.,

1. National Highways,
2. State Highways,
3. Major District Road,
4. Minor District Roads.

The following Table gives the distribution of roads falling under different classes :—

S. No.	Category of Roads	Length	
		(Miles)	(Kms.)
1.	National Highways	57.50	92.54
2.	State Highways	33.93	215.40
3.	Major District Roads	56.70	91.24
4.	Minor District Roads	57.00	91.62
5.	Village Roads	496.00	798.23
6.	Forest Roads	314.50	506.14
7.	Community Development Block Roads	81.00	130.35
8.	Municipal Roads	21.12	33.99

(1) National Highways

This District is traversed by two National Highways, viz., Sagar-Kareli Road and Narsimhapur-Lakhanadon Road. These roads are maintained by the State Public Works Department from the Central Road Fund.

(a) Sagar-Kareli :— The total longth of this road in the District is 32.12 miles (51.7 kms). Out of this length, a stretch of 17.50 miles (28.2 kms) is black topped and the remaining length of 14.62 miles (23.5 kms) is water-bound macadum. This road is composed of the following two distinct sections. 1. Sagar-Kareli—21.37 miles (34.4 kms) and 2. Kareli-Narsimhapur 10.75 miles (17.20 kms).

(1) Sagar - Kareli Section

Before the construction of Bina-Katni railway this was the most important road connecting the Sagar District and carrying the bulk of the exports of the District through Kareli station of the Itarsi-Jabalpur line. But even today its importance is not diminished. Starting from Kareli it passes through open country for the first six miles (9.66 kms) where cultivation in wheat, gram and cotton is carried on, touching Gangvani village in the 2nd mile (3.21 kms) and Linga village in the 4th mile (6.44 kms). From miles 6th to 9th (9.66 km to 14.48 kms) it passes through undulating country and jungles. Crossing the Narmada in 7th mile (11.27 kms) it reaches Burman village in the 8th mile (12.87 kms) where big Hindu temples and bathing ghats are situated and annual fair is held every year in January on Til Sankranti day. In the 10th mile (16.10 kms) there is a bifurcation of road leading to Tendukheda. The main road goes further and passes through village Sagri in the in the 11th mile (17.71 kms), Billi in the 12th mile (19.32 kms) and Suatalao 16th mile (25.76) kms). In the 19th (30.51 kms) and 20th

mile (32.20 kms) it ascends the Jhira ghat and crosses the District boundary in the 22nd mile (35.42 kms) entering Sagar district.

(2) Kareli-Narsimhapur Section

It forms part of the old Bombay Road. It is of considerable importance as Kareli is an important grain market. The road starts from zero mile stone near Narsimhapur Town Hall and runs due west through Narsimhapur civil station east Narsingji's temple to the left. For the first 2.50 miles (4.02 kms) it traverses through Narsimhapur town. In the third mile (4.83 kms) it passes over the Central Railway overbridge. It crosses Barurewa river in the 5th mile (8.05 kms), where a submersible bridge was constructed in the year 1932. From the mile 6th to 8th (9.66 km to 12.87 kms) it passes through flat and open country where cultivation of wheat, Jowar and gram is carried on. In the 10th mile (16.09 kms) there is a bifurcation, the road turning left leads to Amgaon while to the right the road turns to Sagar, the straight road passing further to Gadarwara. The road reaches Kareli town in the 10th mile (16.10 kms).

History of Construction

The construction of Kareli-Sagar road was completed in the year 1878. An interesting description of this road appears in the previous Settlement Report. "A first class military road was made from Saugor to Kareli on the main line of the Railway, and this used to bring volume of traffic from the South of the Saugor District to the Railway. In the open season the road is carried over the Nerbudda by a temporary bridge, but in the rains carts have to be ferried over in common country boats. As soon as the Railway was opened to Saugor, the goods traffic at Kareli naturally declined, and the passenger traffic almost entirely ceased. The route to Saugor by rail *via* Itarsi and Bina is a long one, however, and during the open season a certain number of persons appear to prefer to patronize the old fashioned camel-cart, a lumbering two-storied vehicle drawn by two camels, which carries its passengers from Kareli to Saugor (seventy-five miles) in twenty-four hours, at a cost of Re. 1-8-0 each, while the Railway journey takes nineteen hours, and the cost of the 3rd class ticket is Rs 3-14-0."[1]

About the utility and importance of this road the following brief description appearing in Narsinghpur District Gazetteer will serve to give a clear picture. "Next to the Jubbulpore-Bombay road, that leading from Narsinghpur to Saugor formerly ranked as the most important. The line it took was a somewhat difficult one, passing between Narsinghpur and the Nerbudda

1. Ibid, 1885, p.19

through a complicated network of revines, caused by the confluence of the Sher and Umar rivers with the Nerbudda. After crossing the river at Kerpani the road was taken through the Chanwarpatha tract and left the District by an opening in the hills at Bamhni. When the railway was opened a new road was constructed from Bamhni to Kareli station crossing the Nerbudda at Barmhan. It became the Saugor-Kareli road and was raised to the first class and metalled and bridged throughout except at Barmhan in 1877-78 at a cost of more than 3 lakhs. A temporary wodden bridge is constructed across the Nerbudda in the open season and tolls are levied for crossing the river, a ferry being worked during the rains. Up till 1888 when the Bina-Saugor line was opened this road was of the first importance and was the mail and passenger route to Saugor besides being the outlet for nearly all the trade of District. But since the construction of the railway, passenger traffic along it has almost entirely ceased, and the merchandise only comes to Kareli from Saugor and the north of Narsinghapur. The contract of the ferry which was formerly sold for Rs 22,000 now only fetches Rs 3,000."[1]

(b) Narsimhapur-Lakhnadon Road

The total length of this road in Narsimhapur District is 25.37 miles (40.83 kms) whole of which is black topped. The road is motorable throughout the year except immediately after heavy rains, when some of the crossings are impassable owing to high floods. It is not bridged and there are culverts on the road. In the year 1906, the road was described as "The Narsinghpur-Lakhnadon road runs for 26 miles in the District passing Dangidhana and Bachai. The first 15 miles (24.14 km) of the road are metalled. The road also runs mainly through forest country and there is little traffic on it. Its utility will be still further decreased by the opening of the Satpura railway."[2]

It is an important road connecting Narsimhapur with Jabalpur *via* Lakhnadon, and carries heavy traffic in timber, grain and firewood. The road follows the old Bombay road for the first 4.37 miles (7.03 kms).

It starts from Zero milestone, near the Twon Hall at Narsimhapur, passes through the civil lines and Kandeli suburb, past the library to the right and Ram Mandir to the left. It touches the Borastal Institute and Police lines in the 2nd mile (3.22 kms) and passes to railway crossing (Itarsi-Jabalpur) line and runs due south-east. In the 5th mile (8.04 kms) there is bifurcation, the road turning to the right goes to Lakhnadon while the straight road goes to Jabalpur. It further passes through Dangidhana village at the 7th mile, (11.27 kms), Singri nullah with a raised causeway in the 8th mile, (12.87 kms,)

1. Nasinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 152.
2. Ibid, p. 154.

Bachai village in (10th mile, (16.10 kms), Hilly country from the 11th mile to the 15th, (17.70 kms. to 24.14 kms.), the Macharebra river with submersible bridge 15th mile, (24.14 kms), Pitwa nullah with a raised causeway in the 16th mile (25.75 kms), Mungwani village 19th mile, (30.58 kms), Sonajog nullah, 23rd mile, (37.01 kms), and Kanera river in the 26th mile (41.84 kms) and passes into Seoni District.

State Highways

The total length of the State Highways in the District on the 31st March 1963 was 133.93 miles (215.53 kms). All these roads are maintained by the State Public Works Department. The Table below gives the details.

S. No.	Name of Road	Length	
		(Miles)	(Kms)
1.	Kareli-Hatwans road	22.00	35.42
2.	Old Bombay road (Narsimhapur-Shahpura road)	26.63	42.85
3.	Others	71.62	115.32

1. Kareli-Hatwans Road

The total length of the road as indicated in Table above is 35.62 miles (57.32 kms) out of which 5.38 miles (8.66 kms) are black-topped and the rest 30.24 miles (48.66 km) are water bound macadum. It connects Narsimhapur, the District head-quarters with Gadarwara the tahsil headquarters. It passes through villages of Batisara, Karapgaon, Panari, Sihara and Bohani before it reaches Gadarwara. There is a major crossing on the Shakkar river where a bridge 890 feet in length, 24 feet in width and containing 14 spans of 65 feet each is to be constructed shortly. The estimated cost of the bridge is expected to be Rs. 13,37,611.

2. Old Bombay Road (Narsimhapur-Shahpura Road)

The total length of this road in the District is 26.63 miles (42.8 kms) out of which 0.38 miles (0.6 kms) are black-topped and 25.26 miles (42.2 kms) are water-bound macadum.

In the year 1885 the road was described as follows under the category of unmetalled roads.

"The most important of these is the old trade line from Jubbulpore to Bombay, running through the valley from east to west, and generally following the line of the Railway. Formerly the main trade route of the district, it is

now only used for local traffic. Many of the streams along this route are bridged and others are crossed by causeways."[1]

In 1906, the following description appeared about the road.

"Previous to the construction of the railway the principal trade route was the old road from Jubbulpore to Bombay running east and west in the same direction and parellel to the subsequent course of the line. The traffic in cotton on this road was formerly considerable. It was guarded by police at regular intervals and provided with rest-houses at every place of consequence. The importance of the road was entirely removed by the construction of the railway and it fell into complete disrepair. It was somewhat improved in the famine of 1896-97, and in 1900-01 the section of 8 miles from Kareli to Narsinghpur was metalled, and raised to the first class. The total length of the road in the District is 66 miles (106.2 kms) and the remaining 58 miles (93.3 kms) are maintained by the District Council."[2]

There are three bridges on the road. On the 39th mile i.e. 38 miles, 3 furlong (45.66 kms) there is a reinforced cement concrete, high level bridge over the Vainganga. The total length of the bridge is 75 feet and there are three spans of 25' each. The total estimated cost of the bridge is Rs. 1,20,000.

The second bridge on this road is over the Sher river. This bridge is also made of re-inforced cement cencrete. It is a high level bridge with length of 400' having eight spans of 50' each and the clear road width is 24'. This bridge is still under construction and the estimated cost is Rs 6,82,000. The third bridge is to be constructed over the Umer river. The proposed bridge will be of submerible type and its length will be 150' having six spans of 25' each. The estimated cost of the bridge is approximately Rs. two lakhs.

Major District Roads

The total length of these roads in the District on the 31st March, 1963 was 56.70 miles (19.24 kms). These roads are looked after and maintained by the State Public Works Department.

Minor District Roads:—The total length of these roads in the District on 31st March 1963 was 57.00 miles (91.62 kms). All these roads are looked after and maintained by the State Public Works Department.

1. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1885-94, p. 20.
2. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 1.51.

Village Roads

The total length of these roads which may properly be called as tracks only, was 49.600 miles (798.23 kms) on 31st March 1963. Out of this length 394.00 miles (634.08 kms) were *Kutcha* but motorable while the remaining 102 miles (164.15 kms) were *Kutcha* and not motorable. The table shows the details of these roads blockwise.

S. No.	Name of Block		Length of Roads			
			Kutcha Motorable		Kutcha Notmotorable	
			(Miles)	(Kms.)	(Miles)	(Kms.)
1.	Narsimhapur		51.00	82.1	37.00	59.5
2.	Babai-Chichli		300.00	482.8	40.00	64.4
3.	Chawarpatha		—	—	7.00	11.3
4.	Gotegaon		43.00	69.2	18.00	29.0
		Total	394.00	634.1	102.00	164.2

Forest Roads

The total length of the forest roads in the District on 31st March 1963 was 314.50 miles (506.14 kms). All these roads are fair weather and not motorable during rainy season. They fall under the jurisdiction of the Divisional Forest Officer, Narsimhapur. The table below gives the details of these roads.

S. No.	Name of Road	Length	
		(Miles)	(Kms.)
1.	Dunda—Deonagar Forest Road	4.00	6.4
2.	Usara—Deonagar Forest Road	27.00	43.5
3.	Amgaon—Hatharpur Road	12.00	19.3
4.	Patha—Gorakhpur Road	16.00	25.7
5.	Amadala—Mendari Road	12.00	19.3
6.	Usari—Lalpal Road	7 00	11.3
7.	Usari—Gorakhpur Road	3.00	4.8
8.	Gotegaon—Pahadikhera Road	16.00	25.7
9.	Hingauri—Panadikheda Road	20.00	32.2
10.	Silwani—Borhata Road	7.00	11.3
11.	Pahadikheda—Pipseria Road	9.00	14.5
12.	Silwani—Nadia Road	7.00	11.3
13.	Bhancc—Dhawai Road	8.00	12.9
14.	Deengaiha—Pahadikheda Road	4.00	6.4
15.	Mugwani—Roharia Road	8.00	12.9
16.	Others	154.00	247.8

Community Block Development Roads

The total length of the roads constructed in different Blocks with the help of people's participation under the supervision and direction of Block officials, on 31st March, 1963, was 81.00 miles (130. 35 kms). Out of this length 9.00 miles (14.48 kms.) were metalled and 72.00 (115.87 kms.) were unmetalled. The Table below gives the block-wise details of these roads.

S. No.	Name of Block	Length of Roads			
		Metalled Roads		Unmetalled Roads	
		(Miles)	(Kms.)	(Miles)	(Kms.)
1.	Narsimhapur	—	—	23.50	37.82
2.	Babai-Chichli	—	—	1.50	2.41
3.	Chawarpatha	2.50	4.02	4.00	6.44
4.	Gotegaon	6.50	10.46	43.00	69.20
		9.00	14.48	72.00	115.87

Minicipal Roads

The total length of these roads in the District on 31st March 1963 was 21.12 miles (33.99 kms). The table below shows the details of roads under the different Municipalities in the District.

S. No.	Name of Municipality	Length of Roads (Miles)	Length of Roads (Kms.)
1.	Narsimhapur	8.00	12.87
2.	Gadarwara	5.00	8.05
3.	Kareli	5.12	8.24
4.	Gotegaon	3.00	4.83
	Total	21.12	33.99

Out of this length, 4.50 miles were (7.28 kms) concrete surfaced, 13.12 miles (21.11 kms) were water bound macadum and 3.50 miles (5.60 kms) were unmetalled. The work of construction of concrete and water bound macadum roads in Gadarwara town was started in piece meal from the year 1944 and completed by the year 1962. The construction of roads in Gotegaon town was done in the year 1877 and repairs and maintenanc have been continued since then.

VEHICLES AND CONVEYANCES

The principal means of transport in the District are motor vehicles of all kinds, horse-driven tongas, cycle-rikshaws and bullock carts. The beasts of burden used in this District are chiefly bullocks. The use of mules and horses is comparatively small. The bullock-cart is the chief means of transport in the rural areas.

Automobiles

The total number of motor vehicles registered by the Regional Transport Authority, Jabalpur in the District on the 31st March, 1965, was 188. The Table below gives the details of the vehicles registered during the period 1946-47 to 1964-65.

Year	Cars	Buses	Lorries	Motor-cycle	Taxies	Othres	Total
1946-47	7	1	6	6	2	9	31
1947-48	8	1	7	8	2	9	35
1948-49	10	2	9	8	2	10	41
1949-50	11	2	9	10	3	12	47
1950-51	13	3	11	10	3	12	52
1951-52	18	5	15	12	3	12	65
1952-53	24	3	21	17	3	19	85
1953-54	31	3	27	19	4	21	105
1954-55	39	3	31	21	4	22	120
1955-56	42	3	33	22	4	23	127
1956-57	44	3	34	22	4	23	130
1957-58	45	3	36	24	4	23	135
1958-59	46	3	37	25	4	25	140
1959-60	49	3	37	25	4	25	148
1960-61	51	2	50	26	4	25	185
1961-62	61	3	68	34	4	25	195
1962-63	61	3	68	34	4	3	173
1963-64	65	3	71	36	4	3	182
1964-65	65	3	72	41	4	3	188

Bullock-Cart

The bullock cart is still the basic means of transport especially in the rural areas where the roads are few and their condition poor. The carts in use in this region are of crude design and construction. Some have very norrow lateral tyres, and as a rule, the bearings allow the wheels considerable lateral play. The result is that the wheels move sinuously on the road.

The Table gives year-wise number of bullock-carts registered in different municipal areas of the District during the years 1960-61 to-1964-65.

Year	Narsimhapur	Gadarwara	Kareli	Gotegaon
1960-61	114	146	60	42
1961-62	101	142	58	47
1962-63	108	108	52	50
1963-64	N.A.	345	N.A.	50
1964-65	N.A.	349	N.A.	N.A.

Bicycles

The bicycle is a vehicle of a common man. It is beering widely used even in the rural areas. The Table below gives the yearwise registration of bicycles in the muncipal towns of Narsimhapur and Gadarwara. The number of bicycles in Kareli and Gotegaon is not available as these municipalities do not levy any cycle tax.

Year	Narsimhapur	Gadarwara
1960-61	842	356
961-62	845	287
1962-63	812	241
1963-64	N.A.	N.A.
1964-65	N.A.	N.A.

Tongas

Horse driven tongas are the common means of conveyance in the urban areas. They are used for the carriage of both goods and passengers. The Table below gives the year-wise number of tongas in the municipal towns of Narsimhapur, Gadarwara and Kareli.

Year	Narsimhapur	Gadarwara	Kareli
1960-61	55	40	17
1961-62	49	49	18
1962-63	63	38	19
1963-64	N.A.	N.A.	N.A,
1964-65	N.A.	N.A.	N ..

State Public-Owned Services

Narsimhapur is the seat of the sub-depot of the Madhya Pradesh State Road Transport Corporation. In the year 1962 the buses of the Corporation

—were plying on all routes, having a route mileage of 796 miles (1281.42 kms) and daily scheduled mileage of 3,664 miles (4931.9 Km.)

Year	No. of Routes	Route Mileage		Daily Scheduled Mileage		No. of Buses Operating
		(Miles)	(Kms.)	(Miles)	(Kms.)	
1952	5	220	354.06	1,152	1,853.96	8
1953	5	220	354.06	1,152	1,853.96	8
1954	—	—	—	—	—	—
1955	—	—	—	—	—	—
1956	6	300	482.80	1,510	2,430.11	10
1957	7	395	635.69	1,920	3,089.94	13
1958	8	437	698.46	2,004	3,225.13	14
1959	8	427	687.45	2,154	3,466.54	15
1960	10	653	1,059.90	2,778	4,470.76	19
1961	11	796	1,281.03	3,064	4,931.03	21
1962	11	796	1,281.03	3,064	4,931.03	21

Traffic and Earnings

The Table below gives the number of passengers carried and the earnings realised from them during the year 1960 and 1961.

Year	Passengers Carried (Nos.)	Total Traffic Earnings (Rs.)
1960	6,42,576	7,10,719.00
1961	6,55,718	7,79,434.26

Routes Operated

Till 28th November, 1963, 11 routes were being operated in this district by the Road Transport Corporation within and outside Narsimhapur district. The Table in the Appendix shows the details of the routes operated in the District.

Railways

Narsimhapur, the District head-quarters is situated on the Bombay-Allahabad main line of the Central Railway. The District has been linked with Bombay on one side and Allahabad on the other side since the year 1870.

History of Construction

The following account gives a clear picture regarding the introduction of railways in the' seventies of the last Century.

"The construction of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway through the District, which was completed in 1870, gave an enormous impetus to its trade, which has steadily increased ever since Narsimhapur is 564 miles from Bombay, and the bulk of its external trade goes to that port. The railway line passes through the centre of the District from west to east, having a lentgh of 78 miles, and the eight stations of Babai, Gadarwara, Behani, Kareli, Narsinghpur, Karakbel, Gotegaon or Chhota Chhindwara and Bikrampur within its limits. Goods are booked at all these stations except Bikrampur. A short branch line has also been constructed to connect the Mohpani coal mines with the main line at Gadarwara station. This line was opened for coal traffic in 1872, and for public traffic in 1881. In 1896 a short extension of the branch line was carried for a distance of something over a mile to Gotitoria. The total length of the branch line is 13½ miles and the mileage of railway in the District 91½ miles. The southern and northern borders of the District are in no place more than 3 miles from the railway."[1]

The railway line through this District was opened on 7th March, 1870 as described below.

"The next and last section, Sohagpore to Jubbulpore, was ready on the 7th March. The whole line was on that date opened by His Excellency the Viceroy in the presence of His Royal Highness the Duke of Edinburgh, the Governor of Bombay, and many other principal officers of the State. The hope expressed in last year's Progress Roprt has thus been more than fulfilled."[2]

Present Working

The total length of the line in the District is 78 miles as given below :—

S. No.	Section	Length	
		Miles	Kms.
1.	Narsimbapur-Allahabad	26.75	43.05
2.	Narsimhapur-Itarsi	37.75	60.75
3.	Gadarwara-Gotitoria	13.50	21.73
	Total	78.00	125.53

The railway stations lying on the former section are Karakbel, 9 miles (14.48 kms),Gotegaon 19 miles (30.58 kms), and Bikrampur 26 miles,(41.84 kms)

1. Ibid, p. 151.
2. C. P. Administration Report, 1869-70, p. 51

while those on the latter section are Kareli 10 miles (16.09 kms), Boni 20 miles, (32.19 kms), Gadarwara 28 miles, (45.06 kms) and Salichauka Road 37 miles, (57.55 kms). The third section had little public utility value and is closed.

Amenities to Railway Passengers

Various amenitities have been provided for the convenience of passengers on the way side stations. A good waiting-room for the third class passengers and a waiting room for the first and the second class have been provided at Narsinghpur railway station while other necessary facilities like drinking water, refreshment shops and canteens have been provided at all important railway stations.

Economic Effects of the Railway

When the construction of the railways through this District was envisaged in the year 1864, it was not realised that the railways would link the District with markets for more certain and more remunerative profits than was possible from the presence of the court and army during Maratha rule. This topic has been eloberately discussed thus: "Sir Charles Grant discusses the probable effect of the construction of the railway upon the economic life of the district. He assumed for assessment purposes a price for grain considerably below the actual price prevailing in 1864; and in an endeavour to justify the lowness of his assessments, put forward an amusing argument to support his contention that the opening of the railway would not produce a rise in the price of agricultural produce."

"He argues that if the railway should provide sufficient transport to remove all the surplus grain in the district, the price of grain in the Bombay market would fall while on the other hand, if sufficient transport by rail were not available, surplus stocks would accumulate in the District, and produce a fall in prices."[1]

Actually, even at present, this statement helds good as the Distrcit does not have a very good and all weather road system.

TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES

Serais and *Dharamshalas*.— No account of ancient *serais* and *dharmashalas* in the District is available. During the recent years many *dharmashalas* have been constructed by charitable trusts and philanthropic people for the convenience of travellers.

In Narsimhapur town itself there are three *dharmashalas* namely, (1) Hariram *Dharmshala*, (2) Sitaram Chunnilal *Dharmshala* and Mahavir

1. Narsimhapur Settlement Report, 1923-26, p. 30.

Dharmshala situated in Kamath Ward Tilak Ward and Nehru Ward, respectively. In Narsimhapur tahsil, there are two *Dharmshalas* at Kareli town and two at Gotegaon. The Kareliganj *Dharmshala* is situated near Ram Mandir in Ram Ward on the Kareli-Sagar Road

The second *dharmshala* called Kareli Basti Dharmshala is situated in Jhirna Ward, near Jhanda Chowk on the Kareli-Narsimhapur route. In addition there is one *serai* under the Municipal Committee for use on which people are charged persons at proscribed rates. It is situated near the Kareli Municipal Office. The *dharmshalas* at Gotegaon are Parwati Debi Agrawal *Dharmshala* and Jain *Dharmashala*.

In Gadarwara Tahsil, there are three *dharmshalas* namely Seth Bhojraj *Dharmshala* situated in Radha Ballabha Ward, Kishan Prasad *Dharmshala* situated in Patel Ward and Shri Harlal Sahu *Dharmshala* situated near Amgaon Naka.

Hotels

The increase in road and railway passenger traffic has been mainly responsible for the establishment of hotels and eating-houses. There are not many good hotels in Narsimhapur town providing lodging and boarding facilities to travellers and tourists. But the town has a number of eating-houses. These hotels and eating-houses are, however, a feature associated mainly with urban life and are formed in urban areas all over the District. All urban areas of the District have these. The rural areas have also a few such eating houses. The villages on the roadside have, however, small tea-shops which offer to passengers various light refreshments, tea, etc.

Circuit Houses, Rest Houses and Dak Bungalows

These are maintained in the District mainly by two departments, namely (1) The Public Works Department and (2) The Forest Department. The primary purpose of maintaining these rest houses is to provide facilities regarding boarding and lodging to touring Government officials coming to the District on duty. But they are made available to members of the public also on prescribed rates, if accommodation is available and unreserved or unoccupied. The Circuit House is intended for V.I.Ps., Secretaries, Heads of Departments and other Class I Officers of State and the Central Government. The Collecter of the District is the controlling authority for allotting accommodation in the Circuit House. The P.W.D. rest houses are mainly meant for Class II officers of the State Government. The Executive Engineer, P.W.D. (B. and R.) is the controlling and allotting authority for them. The list of

Circuit Houses, Rest Houses and Dak Bungalows maintained by Public Works Department in this District is shown in Appendix.

S. No.	Location of Rest House and Dak Bungalow	Name of Road	Situation
1.	Narsimhapur		
	(a) Rest House	Sagar-Narsimhapur Road	53rd mile, (85.30 kms)
	(b) Circuit House	— do —	4th mile. (6.44 kms.)
2.	Kareli-Rest House	Sagar-Narsimhapur Road	8th mile (12.87 kms)
3.	Burman	Junction point of old Bombay Road and Sagar-Narsimhapur Road	9·25 miles (14.73 kms) from Kareli Railway Station
4.	Gadarwara	Junction point of old Bombay Road with Kareli Station Road	1 mile (1.61 kms)
5.	Dobhi	Burman-Tendukheda Road	4th mile (6 44 kms)
6.	Tendukheda	Burman-Tendukheda Road	16.50 mile (26.55 kms) from Burman
7.	Bachai	Narsimhapur-Lakhnadon Road	11th mile (17.70 kms)
8.	Gotegaon	Old Bombay Road	19 miles (30.58 kms) from Narsimhapur

Forest Rest Houses

In addition to the P.W.D rest Houses, mentioned above the following places have Rest Houses, maintained by the Forest Department, mainly for the convenience of their own employees.

S. No.	Location	Name of Road/Range	Situation
1.	Pahadikheda	Gotegaon-Pahadikheda Road	29th mile (32.18 kms)
2.	Bachai	Narsimhapur-Lakhnadon Seoni Road	10th mile (16.09 kms)
3.	Jamgaon	Gadarwara to Jamgaon *via* Gotitoria	28th mile (45.06 kms)
4.	Amaapni	Richhai Range	36th mile (57.93 kms) from Burman
5.	Patkuhi	Khairi Range	20th mile (32.18 kms)
6.	Bhainsa	,,	30th mile (48.28 kms) from Gadarwara

Aerodrome

There is no aerodrome in the District are hence there are no other transport facilities.

Waterways, Ferries and Bridges

The main rivers in the District are the Narmada and the Shakkar. There are other rivulets which may be appropriately termed as large streams only. These streams become dry in summer and even the two rivers are not suitable for navigation.

Ferries

The ferries are maintained at present in this District over the crossings of the Narmada and the Shakkar. The ferries are maintained and auctioned every year in exercise of the powers conferred under section 12 of the Northern Indian Ferries Act, 1878 (XVII of 1878). The Table below gives the auction money realised from the ferries at Burmanghat and the Shakkar Ghat.

Year	Auction Money Realised	
	Burman Ghat (Rs.)	Shakkar Ghat (Rs.)
1958-59	17,500	9,200
1959-60	13.500	11.800
1960-61	14,200	10,500
1961-62	14,200	10,500
1962-63	13,000	10,000
1963-64	17,600	18,000

In addition toll-tax is levied on all vehicles for crossing the bridge over the Barurewa river The Table below gives the income as toll-tax during the recent years.

Year	Toll Tax Realsed
	(in Rs.)
1958	5,350
1959	5,101
1960	5,400
1961	5,100
1962	5,100
1963	[illegible],775

POSTS, TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES

The Postal Act XVII of 1837 was repealed by the Act XVII of 1854. This Act marked the beginning of the present organisation of the post offices. However mainly it dealt with the working and control of Imperial Post only. The system of postal communication in the interier of the District was different. Its operation was not covered by the Imperial Post. This was known as the District Post and was meant to provide communication between the head-quarters of the District and revenue and police stations in the interior. As the district dak system developed and several post-offices increased in importance they were absorbed into Imperial Department and the funds thus set free were utilized for the further improvement of the rural delivery.

During these days district Post offices existed at the police station and at the *sadar* station. The general rules of the Post-Office Department were adopted. The Nazir of the District Court was the officer-in-charge of the District Post, while the Police Writer at the police station served as District Post Master. There was a delivery peon for the postal sub-division of the District corresponding to the police limits of the police Station. There were dak-runners between the *sadar* Station and police station in the interior. On demand by inhabitants, District Post-Offices were established in the larger towns and interior of the District. The Deputy Commissioner was responsible for the efficiency of postal arrangements while the Police Officer performed the duties of Inspector of District Post Offices. In these initial stages of postal developmet, expenses were covered partly by the District Post Cess which amounted to annas eight per cent of the land revenue assessment and partly income derived from bearing and stamped letters.[1]

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1964-65, p 38.

As early as 1862-63 a proposal was made to bring the receipt and delivery of letters in the interior of the District under the control of the Post-Office Department. But a decision was taken to continue the existing arrangement. As the post offices in Sagar-Nerbudda territories were under the jurisdiction of the remote Post Master General of the North West Province, their supervision was not satisfactory. During the year 1867-68, management of District postal lines and establishments was made over to the Chief Inspector who controlled Imperial Post Department in the Central Provinces.

But the opening of the railways in 1870, through this district, revolutionised the system of carriage of the post and introduced speed and certainty in the receipt of the Dak.

Present Working and Set-up

The Table given below depicts the growth in the number of post and telegraph Offices in Narsimhapur district during the years 1947-48 to 1962-63.

S. No.	Years	Number of Post Offices			Total	No. of Telegraph Offices
		Head Office	Sub-Office	Branch Office		
1	1947-48	Nil	—	40	40	Nil
2	1948-49	Nil	—	40	40	Nil
3	1949-50	Nil	—	44	44	Nil
4	1950-51	Nil	—	48	48	Nil
5	1951-52	Nil	—	49	49	Nil
6	1952-53	Nil	—	50	50	Nil
7	1953-54	Nil	—	50	50	Nil
8	1954-55	Nil	—	51	51	Nil
9	1955-56	Nil	9	56	65	6
10	1956-57	Nil	9	67	76	7
11	1957-58	Nil	9	88	98	8
12	1958-59	Nil	9	90	99	8
13	1959-60	Nil	9	92	101	8
14	1960-61	Nil	9	97	106	8
15	1961-62	Nil	9	109	.18	8
16	1962-63	Nil	9	116	125	8

The Table above shows that on the 31st March, 1963, 125 post-offices existed in the District. Out of these, 9 were sub-offices and 116 were branch offices. In addition to these, there were 8 Telegraph Offices. Both Postal and Savings Bank business are transacted at all sub-offices in the District.

Telephones

Narsimhapur town was linked with telephone in the year 1956 and

other places were also provided with telephenes at different dates as gives in the table below. Jabalpur is the head-quarters of the Telephone Group Exchange with sub-exchange at Gadarwara, Narsimhapur, Gotegaon and Karakbel and Kareli. The sub-exchanges at Karakbel, Kareli and Gotegaon are worked on the sub-auto system while those at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara are worked manually.

The Table below gives the details regarding five Telephone Exchanges in the District :—

S. No.	Name of Exchange	Date of Opening	Numbers of Connection as on the 31st March					
			1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965
1.	Narsimhapur	25.11.1956	23	25	35	39	44	69
2.	Gadarwara	2.10.1954	39	41	41	44	49	55
3.	Kareli	2.10.1957	21	24	25	25	28	33
4.	Karakbel	22.3.1963	—	—	—	8	8	8
5.	Gotegaon	22.3.1963	—	—	—	14	14	18

Radio and Wireless Stations

There is no radio station or licensed wireless station in the District. It is served by the Jabalpur and Bhopal stations of the All India Road which are the nearest to the District. However, in the last six years, there has been an increasing demand for the wireless receiving (Radio) sets as depicted in the Table below :—

Year	No. of Licenses Issued
1948	102
1949	107
1950	108
1951	111
1952	109
1953	116
1954	153
1955	144
1956	190
1957	298
1958	564
1959	698
1960	760
1961	966
1962	1,222
1963	1,448

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

An idea as to the extent of population in the District dependent for their livelihood on activities like agriculture, industry, banking, trade and commerce has been given in the earlier chapters dealing with these topics. But besides these major activities, there remain a sizeable portion of population engaged in different professions and services, some of which are being dealt with in this Chapter.

With our objective of a Welfare State, professions like teaching and medicine are being given national importance. In order to make our economic planning work properly, public services are being reorganized. With the enactment of different Central and State legislations, services of lawyers are also in demand. As the economic development is progressing apace trading in goods, retail and whole-sale, is gaining momentum.

However, in the absence of any up-to-date data regarding all these varied occupations and services the 1961 Census data in this respect are being used to bring out the numerical strength and economic conditions of the people in the District. Here also the 1961 Census data are not exactly comparable with the data in previous censuses, because of the conceptual and classificatory changes from census to census, such changes perhaps being the direct result of changing economic conditions.

Public Service

The old order of public servants as the guardians of law and order is yielding place to the new, as the Government are assuming increasing respons bilities in the social and economic spheres. As a result, public services are diversified into different activities and consequently, strengthened everywhere to cope with additional burden. In this context it will be of interest to note that in the year 1931, the year upto which Narsimhapur existed as a separate administrative unit, there were 767 persons, male and female, in the State services. Of the Central Government Service, which was then classified as India Government Service, there was none in the District. In the municipal and other local services, excluding villages, there were 187 persons of both

sexes. As against these, in the year 1961 the State Government administrative departments and offices engaged 1,454 persons, male and female. Even in the Central Government administrative departments and offices there were 39 persons in the year 1961, as against none in the year 1931. In the quasi-Government organizations, municipalities and local bodies there were 156 persons in the year. In this last case, the number of persons in 1961 appears to have declined as compared to 1931. But this decline in the number cannot in any way be supposed to reflect the declining importance of local administrative organizations. On the contrary, the Government are making every effort to boost them up in their scheme of administrative decentralization. Any interpretation of figures, as earlier stated, is fraught with difficulties of comparison.

Except making general observations nothing can be stated about the socio-economic conditions of persons in the public services, as the field has not been investigated in the District. However, as in earlier days, people even now prefer service in Government departments than under the private employers, even though in some private organizations the service conditions, especially the pay and allowances, etc., happen to be better. This preference for Government service may be explained in terms of greater security of the tenure of service.

In order to compensate the public servants for a loss in real wages due to increased costs of living, dearness allowance is given to them. Old age pension and gratuity benefits are also given after retirement. Free education for the children of certain categories of employees, having a basic pay upto Rs. 100 per month and with half the tuition fees for the children of the employees whose basic pay is more than Rs. 100 but less than Rs. 200 per month, has been provided by the Government. The children of the employees of the State Government, local bodies, teachers in the private recognized institution are covered under this scheme.

Public servants also get the benefit of provident fund. According to the Madhya Pradesh General Provident Fund (Extension and Amendment) Rules, 1965, which have come into force from the 1st May, 1965, all Government servants (temporary or permanent) who have put in not less than one year of service and who are likely to continue in service are required to contribute to the General Provident Fund, not less than three per cent upto the emoluments of Rs. 100 per month and six per cent of the emoluments where the pay is more than Rs. 100 per month.

Reimbursement of expenses on account of the medical treatment of the Government servant and his family, is also provided. The scope of the term "family",[1] which was previously restricted to the wife and children of the

1. Notification No. 3352/XVII/Med (III) dated the 28th April, 1964.

employee, has now been extended to include the parents, legally adopted children and step-children, residing with and wholly dependent on the Government servant.

Wherever possible and where the nature of duties requires the presence of an employee on the premises of work, residential accommodation is also provided to the Government employees.

Teaching Profession

With the achievement of freedom, the Nation set itself for eradication of illiteracy from amongst the masses. To this end, primary education was made compulsory and facilities for collegiate and technical education were introduced by setting up colleges and technical training institutions. With a view to providing trained teaching staff, courses for training the teachers were introduced and training institutions were started. As a result of all these, the number of persons in the teaching profession increased considerably. According to the 1931 Census, the number of teachers of all kinds was 373. This included 44 females. These were classified as "earners", having a principal occupation of teaching, for purposes of 1931 Census. In the year 1961, the number of persons in educational services such as those rendered by colleges, schools and similar other institutions of non-technical type was 1739. This number consisted of 1459 males and 280 females. In addition, there were 83 persons in educational services such as those rendered by technical schools and vocational institutions. Of these 83, ten were females. This means, as against 373 persons in the year 1931 in the teaching profession, the number had increased to 1,822, i. e., nearly six times as much.

In the primary or junior basic schools there were 569 male teachers in the year 1957. This number had increased to 723 in 1960. The number of lady teachers had increased from 13 in 1957 to 43 in 1960. There were 294 male teachers in the middle schools in 1957. This number however, had decreased to 283 in 1960. The number of lady teachers in this category was 6 in 1957 which had increased to 18 in 1960. In the higher secondary or senior basic schools, as against 107 male teachers in 1957 there were 187 male teachers in 1960. There were two lady teachers in this category in the year 1960, there being no lady teacher in the previous years. In the Degree College, Narsimhapur, male and female teachers in 1960 were 11. Besides this, there are two other colleges in the District and total teaching staff of all the three colleges was 43. Thus, it becomes apparent that the Government policies in the field of education are opening up fresh opportunities of employment, and the profession is gaining in strength. To improve the standard of teaching, Government are making efforts to train a large number of teachers by starting teachers' training institutes. Untrained teachers already

in service are given training at Government cost, while in fresh recruitment, preference is given to already trained persons.

While expecting technical qualifications from those entering this profession, the Government have also been trying to improve the economic conditions of the persons in this profession, not only for those in Government employment, but also for those employed under the Municipal Committees and Janapada Sabhas. From the 1st October, 1963, for purposes of pay and allowances, the State Government have taken over the services of teachers under Janapada Sabhas and Municipal Committees, thereby giving all these teachers the benefits of the revised scales of pay introduced by the Government for their employees.

The progress made in the District in the field of literacy during the decade 1951-61 can be seen from the fact that the percentage of literacy in 1951 was 14.1 which had increased to 21.5 in the year 1961. The percentage of literacy among the male population of the District was 22.9 in 1951 which had increased to 32.4 in 1961. As compared to literacy amongst the male population, literacy amongst females appears satisfactory, the figures being 5.0 and 10.0 for the years 1951 and 1961, respectively. These percentages of literacy figures, however, show the leeway that has yet to be made in the achievement of total literacy. In view of the target, ranks in the teaching profession will have to be strengthened manifold and as such there is much scope in this profession for employment in future.

Medical Profession

In the programme of social welfare, medical treatment of the masses is of prime importance. Government have, therefore, taken upon themselves the task of providing free medical treatment to the populace through Government hospitals and dispensaries. The number of these institutions is increasing, as the Country is proceeding along the path of planned development. Along with the increase in the number of hospitals and dispensaries a number of medical institutions imparting training in medicine and surgery are also being set-up. Besides the allopathic system of medicine Government have started propagating *ayurvedic* system of medicine also, by setting up *ayurvedic* dispensaries. Practitioners in homoeopathic system of medicine are also registered as medical practitioners.

As per 1931 Census there were 59 registered medical practitioners, including occulists in the District. There were 34 other persons, according to the Census, practising the healing arts without being registered. The classification of registered medical practitioners according to different systems of medicine was not available. The midwives, vaccinators, compounders,

nurses, etc., numbered 115 according to 1931 Census. This gives a total of about 208 persons in the profession, practically of all categories. The total population of the District in that year being 3,21,481, for one person in medical profession, the number worked out to 1,545 persons.

In the year 1961, as per Census figures, the medical and health services of all types engaged 354 persons. Population in the year was 4,12,406. These figures give a proportion of 1,164 persons for one in medical profession.

Taking the 1931 and 1961 figures as above the situation in respect of medical and public health services in the year 1961 appears to have improved as compared to the year 1931. But the figures as taken above for two censuses are in no way comparable and therefore, cannot justifiably be interpreted in drawing categorical conclusion. As stated earlier, in successive Five Year Plans the State Government have been laying emphasis on social welfare services, of which medical and public health formed an important part. As a result, there happened to be nine allopathic hospitals/dispensaries in the District and two mobile dispensaries at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara. In Narsimhapur Tahsil, there were three Government-aided and two Government-managed *ayurvedic* dispensaries.

In Gadarwara Tahsil, there were two aided and 29 unaided *ayurvedic* dispensaries. The different Janapada Sabhas in the District employed as many as 53 *ayurvedic vaidyas* while there were 6 *ayurvedic vaidyas* in the employment of the State Government. Doctors (allopathic) in the State Government service numbered 18 and in private practice 11. There were 73 registered *vaidyas*. Besides, there were three homoeopaths in Government employment and 6 others in private practice. In addition there were 11 nurses, 17 compounders, 14 dressers, 6 health vistors and 24 midwives in the District.

The Government are alive to the growing needs of the people in respect of medical and public health facilities. To this effect stress is being laid on training different categories of medical personnel in growing numbers and their service conditions are also sought to be improved. With a view to avoiding concentration of persons in this profession in urban areas, laying down of some conditions of service in rural areas after completion of training is also contemplated.

Economic conditions of the persons in this occupation are comparatively better, though fresh entrants in this profession have to face hardships during the period of initiation. In this initial period they have also to overcome preferences of the public for old established practitioners in the profession.

Once these difficulties are overcome, easy economic conditions and social status follow as a matter of course.

Legal Practitioners

Beginning of this profession in the District dates back to the year 1860, **when for the first time** licenses were (reported to have been) issued to practise in **the courts.** Such licenses used to be issued by the Tahsildars. No educational **qualifications** were prescribed at that time for practicing lawyers. In course of **time** only Matriculates, after passing the qualifying examination conducted by **Government** in this respect, were allowed to practice. It is from the beginning **of the** present century that the Law Graduates from the different universities **in** the Country started taking to this profession. Law degree is now essential for any one intending to practise law.

In the post-independence period, there was a spurt of legislative activity in the fields of revenue and labour, on the part of the Central as well as the State Governments. This has given an impetus to educated young men and women for entering the profession. However, the number of Law Graduates coming out of the portals of different universities is also increasing year by year. In order to establish oneself in this profession, it is necessary to go through a period of apprenticeship under the guidance of an established senior lawyer. This period of apprenticeship usually extends over a period of three to four years. This condition in the profession, which compels the fresh entrant in the field to go with a very little or no earnings in the initial period of four to five years, acts as a deterrant for taking up the profession. Even after this period the success in the profession is not assured, because the clientele have their preferences for the veterans. Over and above the degree in Law, a person intending to take up this profession, requires a flair for oratory, quick wit, and perception as well as impressive personality without which success becomes an uphill task. That is why a majority of the persons in this profession are found to be ecking out a difficult living while only a few are making a fortune.

According to the 1931 Census, the "earners" in the profession of law, viz., lawyers of all kinds, including *quazis*, law-agents and *mukhtiars*, numbered 123 in the District. From amongst these, lawyers, clerks and petition-writers were only 28. As against this, in the year 1961, there were 39 legal practitioners alone in the District, which number included 34 pleaders and five advocates.

Besides the public services and professions referred to in the foregoing pages, retail and whole-sale trade activities also provide employment to a sizeable portion of the populace.

Retail and Whole-Sale Trade

The number of "earners" in sub-class V, i.e., Trade, as per 1931 Census, was 9,986. The total "workers" in the occupational class VII, i.e., Trade and Commerce, as per 1961 Census, were 6,384. Classification of Trade into whole-sale and retail in different commodities for 1931 Census was not made. In the 1961 Census however, according to the Standard Industrial Classification retail trade of all kinds engaged 5,311 males and females. Largest number of persons, however, was engaged in retail trade in cereals, pulses, vegetables, fruits, sugar, spices, oil, fish, dairy products, eggs and poultry. The number in this class was 3,095. The trade in fibres, yarns, *dhoti*, *sari*, readymade garments of cotton, wool, and other textiles and hosiery products provided employment to 421 persons of both sexes. Persons retailing tobacco bidi, cigarettes and other tobacco products numbered 228 and those dealing in food stuffs like sweetmeat, condiments, cakes, biscuits, etc., were 193.

Whole-sale trade in general engaged 899 persons in the District in the year 1961. There were 795 persons in whole-sale trading in cereals and pulses; but there were only nine whole-sellers in vegetables, fruits, sugar, spices, oil, fish, dairy products, eggs, poultry and other food stuffs. Trading in all kinds of fabrics and textile products, such as garments, etc., engaged 22 persons. The number of shops registered under the Shops and Establishments Act, 1958 and employees in these shops from 1961 to 1964 was.

Year	No. of Registered Shops	No. of Employees
1961	578	276
1962	674	253
1963	739	274
1964	583	248

Money-Lending

The role of money-lenders in the old economic set-up of the Country was proverbial and even now in the rural economy of the Country the money-lender and his activities are a factor to reckon with. He, however, plays his role unobtrusively, because Government have imposed restrictions on his activities by legislation. As a matter of fact, money-lending as a business by itself was practised by very few even in olden times. Money-lending was always combined with trade, commerce, industry and agriculture. The conditions have changed considerably everywhere, and this can be seen from the fact that while banking and other financial operations in the District provided employment to 117 persons in the year 1961, indigenous money-lending was carried on by only 35 persons.

Hotels and Restaurants

Hotels, boarding-houses, eating-houses, cafes, restaurants, and similar other organizations, providing lodging and boarding facilities, are springing up not only in towns and cities but also in rural areas. Changing socio-economic conditions, growing industrial activites and facilities of travel might be said to be responsible for the boom in this business. In the absence of any standards laid down as to the type of accommodation, quality of eatables, sanitation and service arrangements at every turn of the road and in the lanes, near railway stations, motor bus-stands, market places, cinema-houses and *dharmasalas*, hotels are established and are found to be doing considerable business. Leaving aside a few big hotels lodging and boarding establishments in big cities and towns, most of the establishments are for serving tea and snacks. Because of the dearth of industrial and commercial activities in the District, hotels and restaurants are not in a flourishing state. As such in the whole of the District, in the year 1961, there were 314 persons working in different establishments as bearers, waiters maids, etc. Out of these, 144 were males and 170 were females. The number of hotels and restaurants registered under the Shops and Establishments Act, 1958 with the number of employees working in them from 1961 to 1964 was;

Year	No. of Hotels/ Restaurants	No. of Employees
1961	83	50
1962	100	54
1963	116	46
1964	89	61

Cycle Repairing

With the growth of bicycle manufacturing industry in the Country cycling has become the cheapest mode of conveyance in the urban areas. Even in the rural areas, barring the rainy season, bicycles are being used as a mode of conveyance. This being so, small repairing shops are found coming up everywhere. As a matter of fact, there are very few regular cycle-repairing workshops as such, but most of the repairing work is done in the road-side establishments which serve the needs of traffic moving on bicycles. Wherever there are regular shops, bicycles are also given on hire on the basis of a charge per hour.

According to 1961 Census there were 83 persons engaged in the bicycle repairing work in the District. Quite a few shop-keepers also employ servants, usually boys, but employment depends on the volume of business and hence

is irregular. The servants are usually paid daily wages ranging from Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 2.00, depending upon their skill.

The daily earnings of these shop-keepers vary from Rs. 7 to Rs. 15. This includes what they earn from giving the cycles on hire. In the year 1965 in Gotegaon Municipal area there were 10 cycle-repairing shops run by owners themselves and three others employing servants. In the same year Narsimhapur Municipal area had 17 shops; Gadarwara Municipal area had 13 shops, and 10 persons were working in the Municipal area of Kareli.

Tailoring

The greatest impact of the West on our habits of life has been found in the matter of dress. With the increased communication facilities between the Country and western hemisphere, the everchanging sartorial habits from the West are being adopted. As a result the occupation of tailors everywhere in rural as well as urban areas, has received a fillip. Specialization of tailors in stitching clothes for men, women and childern has also been brought about in the occupation. The old-time tailor visiting the houses of the customers for taking measurements and cloth has completely disappeared: instead big and small tailoring establishments worked by the owners as well as the employees are found both in rural and urban areas. The tailoring shops employing workers usually pay their employees on piece-rate basis. Salaried employees in this occupation are rare. The charges for stitching the same type of garment differ not only from place to place but from shop to shop in the same place, depending upon the goodwill earned and quality of the establishment run by the tailor. Tailoring establishment in the Civil Lines of the town, therefore, charges higher rate for stitching a shirt, than its counterpart in other localities of the town.

In the year 1931 there were 955 persons in this occupation in the District of which 151 were women. As might be expected, in the year 1961, the number increased to 1,270, women being 218. There were 25 tailoring shops, all worked by the owners in the year 1965 in Gotegaon Municipal area. Narsimhapur Municipal area had 59 tailoring shops in the same year; Gadarwara Municipal area had 41 owner-managed tailoring units. Municipal area of Kareli had 30 tailors in the year 1966.

Religious and Welfare Service

There are many *pandits*, priests, *fakirs* and monks who are rendering services for the welfare of masses. Many others are engaged in running *ashrams*, missions, etc., with a view to promoting religious education. These organisations are run on no-profit basis for the welfare of the community.

There are also in the District, some persons who are connected with organisations like Red Cross, Relief Societies etc. As per Census of 1961 there were 437 persons engaged in such religious and welfare activities. These include 424 men and 13 women. The detailed break-up is as under :—

	Male	Female
1. Persons engaged in Religious Organisations, etc.	23	2
2. Number of *Pandits*, *Fakirs*, etc.	376	10
3. Persons engaged in organisations like Red Cross Society, Relief Works, etc.	25	1

Domestic Services

In the olden days every family with substance used to have permanently attached domestic servants like barbers, washermen, drivers, gardeners, palanquinbearers, torch bearers, maid-servants, and the like. Payments for their services used to be made mostly in kind at the time of harvests. Besides such payments in kind they used to be given perquisites like pair of *dhotis*, *saris*, turban cloth, blankets, pairs of shoes etc. As a matter of fact most of the domestic servants in those days formed part of the larger family and some of the offices under the domestic services used to be performed hereditarily. All these conditions in the domestic services have now changed, though some vestiges of the old system are still found in erstwhile zamindar and malguzar families and in the ural areas. In urban areas all traces of the old-time domestic services system have been obliterated.

Barbers

In the conservative type of a family importance of barbers, amongst the domestic servants, is unique, as there are some ceremonies which cannot take place in their absence. Ceremonies connected with deaths births, marriages and some *poojas* require their presence while at certain other functions the presence of barbers is essential admitting of no substitutes. In rural area payment for their services is usually made in kind at the harvest time. But this system of making and receiving payment for services rendered, is being replaced by payment in cash. In villages barbers usually go to the houses of the customers for hair-cutting, etc., but their counterparts in the urban areas mostly maintain what are called Hair Dressing Saloons. In 1956, the normal rate in saloons for hair-cutting was about 37 paise, while for shaving they usually charged 12 paise. The rates of hair-cutting prevalent these days range from 50 paise to 60 paise, while for shaving the rate is 20 paise. In urban areas opening of hair-cutting saloons necessiates investment of sizeable amount as rent for accommodation and charges for furnishing, purchase of instruments and accessories, become quite high. There is always a sort of

competition in furnishing these saloons in order to attract customers. The practice of air-cooling or air-conditioning saloons, prevalent in some towns of the State has not been taken up in any of the towns of the District, though the facilities provided in the saloons here include radiosets, fans, etc. Often times only owners work in such saloons, but if the business is much and if they find that they cannot cope up with the work they then take the assistance of their relatives or even employ persons of their trust to assist them. The payment in such cases is usually made either on a salary or on percentage basis, i.e., certain percentage of total earnings of a day, or a week, as may be agreed upon, which differs from saloon to saloon. In certain cases these hair-cutting saloons are owned by persons other than those belonging to the caste of barbers, though actual workers are usually of that caste. In the year 1931, there were 1060 persons of both sexes in this occupation. According to the 1961 Census the number of persons in this occupation was 960. This fall in the number can be accounted for in the relaxation of rigidities of old caste system which enjoined upon a particular caste to work in the occupation of that caste and no other. Besides, general and technical educational facilities being now available to all some of the educated barbers, might have taken up other occupations also. Gotegaon, Narsimhapur and Gadarwara, had 6,23, and 21 hair-cutting establishments in the year 1961, in their respective Municipal areas. Kareli Municipal area had 15 barbers in the year 1966.

Washermen

Like barbers, washermen or *dhobis* also used to be attached to the families in olden times, and paid usually in kind at harvest times. Those not so attached used to serve general populace, by collecting the clothings during the forenoon from the houses and returning them duly washed that very day, ironing of clothes being not in vogue. Even now collection of clothes is done by visits, not daily but weekly or fortnightly and also returned washed and ironed after a week or fortnight. But as in the case of barbers, *dhobies* mostly in urban areas, have started opening shops. Customers are required to hand over their clothes to be washed in these laundries and collect the same after three or four days or even a week's time, as the case may be.

The rate for washing 100 garments within seven days is anywhere between Rs. 7 and Rs. 8. Woollen and silk garments are usually washed by dry-cleaning process and such dry-cleaning establishments are being opened in increasing numbers. Here again the caste barriers are found broken as the owners of such establishments are usually other than those of washerman caste, though actual workers are mostly washermen by caste. In the year 1931 there were 1779 persons in this occupation in the District, which had fallen to 1,307 in the year 1961. Gotegaon Municipal area had 5 laundries,

Narsimhapur Municipal area had 3 drywash establishments and Gadarwara Municipal area had 19 laundries in the year 1965. In Kareli Municipal aera, there were 14 washermen in 1966.

Pan-shops

Selling of cigarettes, bidis, and *pan* (betel-leaf) has also become an occupation of some importance these days. In the Municipal area of Gotegaon in the year 1965 there were 26 such shops, all being worked by the owners themselves. The earnings of the shopkeepers were reported to be Rs. 3 per day. There were 137 *pan* shops in the Narsimhapur Municipal area in 1965 where the earnings varied from Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 3 per day. Gadarwara Municipal area had 64 *Pan* shops, where earnings varied from Rs. 0.50 to Rs. 3 per day. Kareli Municipal area had 25 *pan* shops in 1966. The earnings of the shop-keepers varied from Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 6.50 per day.

Domestic Servants

This category includes the services of cooks, maid-servants, water-carriers, etc. These persons in olden times used to be employed on full-time basis in households, and besides getting their remuneration they used to lodge and board with the families they served. The changed economic conditions have changed the employment pattern of domestic servants. It is only in the highest echelon of the society that the domestic servants are found employed on full-time basis now-a-days. Ordinarily, however, those who undertake domestic work of a kind, do so in order to supplement the income earned from some other principal occupation. If for example a female labourer works as a helper in a masonry job, she takes up a part-time work of a maid-servant in the morning and evening hours. This arrangement in the changed conditions has been found economical by those who engage domestic servants and it is also found suitable by those offering their services, as they can take up other remunerative work. As in other domestic services, dealt with in the foregoing pages, the number of persons in this occupation too is falling. The reason for this can be sought in the availability of remunerative work in bidi industry, factories, and construction works the tempo of which has been stepped up everywhere, under the planned economic development, after Independence. Thus for example, in the year 1931, under the categery of "other domestic service" there were 2,753 persons in the District. As might justifiably be expected the females were larger in number than males, the number being 1,499 and 1,254, respectively. In the year 1961, there were 1,024 persons, i.e., the number had fallen to less than 50 per cent of 1931 Census figure. The pattern, however, does not appear to have changed, i.e., larger number of females in the occupation than males. The number of females in the occupation, in 1961, was 525 and the males numbered 499.

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

Pattern of Livelihood

As in the economy of the Country so in the economy of the District agriculture and allied occupations are the mainstay of livelihood of the population. In using the available census data for Narsimhapur District as a separate administrative unit, it has been found that 41.54 per cent of the "actual workers" were engaged in the year 1901 in pasture and agriculture. In that year the total population of the District was 3,13,951.

The District as a separate administrative unit was dissolved in the year 1931 and remained as such till the Reorganization of the State in the year 1956. After reorganization the Census figures of the year 1961 are available separately for the District. The total population of the District at this Census was 4,12,406. Area in sq. miles of the District in the year 1901 was 1,916 and in 1961 it was 1,979 sq. miles. There was thus no major change in the area of the District over a period of 60 years, but population increase in 1961 over that of the year 1901 was about 31.35 per cent. The percentage of "workers" in agriculture, i.e., cultivators plus agricultural labourers, was 34.04 of the total population in the year 1961. *Prima facie*, this fall in the percentage of "workers" in agriculture in the year 1961 over 1901 might suggest a progressive trend in the economy of the District through lessening the pressure of increasing population from land to other sectors of the economy. But it is to be noted here that the occupational class of agriculture and pasture in the 1901 Census included within its scope much more besides cultivators and agricultural labourers as included in 1961 Census classification. This being so, no categorical conclusion can be drawn about the change in the economy of the District or pattern of livelihood of the populace. This is so because of the incomparability of the data from one census to another consequent upon the changes in concepts and economic classifications for different census periods. Other occupational classes like industries, commerce and trade, transport, other services and miscellaneous sources have also undergone changes in concept and their respective contents during different census periods making intercensal period comparision infructuous. Therefore, the pattern of livelihood in the District as found in 1961 Census is presented below.

Out of the total population of 4,12,406 in the year 1961 the population of "workers" in different occupations was 1,90,956. This worked out to 46.30 per cent. The percentage of "workers" in agriculture to the total number of "workers" was 73.54. The "workers" in mining, quarrying and livestock was 2.13 per cent. Household and manufacturing other than household industries had 8.13 per cent of the total number of workers". "Workers" engaged in construction formed 0.53 per cent. Trade and commerce had 3.34 per cent of the total number of "workers". Transport, storage and communication engaged 0.88 per cent of the "workers" and other services 11.44 per cent.

The above percentages of "workers" in different occupations are self-explanatory. The pattern of livelihood is essentially agricultural, all other occupations engaging a mere 26.46 per cent. Against the larger background of the national economy the pattern obtaining in the District is no exception. The change in the pattern is possible only when there are enough resources in the form of minerals, industrial raw-materials and power and when there is a systematic exploitation of these resources. Narsimhapur District is lacking in the availability of such resources, and hence the burden of growing population is being borne by agriculture.

As against the total number of "workers" in all occupations which was 1,90,956, the number of dependents, i.e., "non-workers" was 2,21,450. This roughly gives a proportion of 1.15 dependents per economically active person, i.e., a "worker". The proportion of dependents per "worker" is not high, because major portion of the population is engaged in agricultural prusuits which provide greater scope for employment to women and children, though not a whole-time or a perennial employment.

The rural population in the District constituted 88.12 per cent of the total and out of the total number of 1,90,956 "workers" in the District 1,75,410 "workers" were in the rural areas. This means that of the total "workers" 91.86 per cent belonged to the rural areas of the District. As against the total number of 1,75,410 "workers" in rural areas the "non-workers" numbered 1,88,000 which gives a proportion of 1.07 "non-workers" or dependents per "worker" i.e., an economically active person. In the urban areas of the District the total number of "workers" was only 15,546 and the "non-workers" were 33,450. The proportion of "non-workers" in the urban areas worked out to 2.15 per "worker". This again confirms that agricultural activities (which are at a lower level in urban areas) in providing employment only to men but to women and children in the worker's family, reduce the number of dependents per economically active person or "worker". As against 1-15 "non-workers" or dependents for the whole of the District the proportion of

"non-workers" in rural areas was 1.07. This was becaase out of the total of 1,75,410 "workers" in rural areas 1,38,569 "workers" or 78.99 per cent were engaged in agriculuture. Household industry in rural areas provided work to 11,481 "workers" as against 1,698 in the urban areas, the "workers" in manufacturing other than household being 326 and 2,024 in rural and urban areas, respectively. This shows that even in respect of industrial occupations rural areas provided employment to more "workers" than the urban areas.

Other significant feature of the pattern of livelihood in the District is that the rural areas also claimed a larger number of "workers" in other services, the number being 17,173 in rural as against only 4,676 in urban areas.

The Census data for the year 1961 as presented above brings out the picture of the District as a rural homestead where agriculture is the epicentre of all activity, where industry is the household industry, trade and transport are without any momentums engaging merely a fraction of the total number of "workers" with such other services as are suited to this rural setting.

GENERAL LEVEL OF PRICES

Important crops in the District are wheat and gram. Beside these, jowar, kodon, linseed and rice are also produced to a lesser extent. In the first quarter of the 19th Century. i.e., about the year 1821, wheat in the District was sold at 64 seers a rupee and gram about 107 seers. These rates in the present conditions sound legendary, because conditions have undergone a radical change everywhere since then.

At the beginning of the present Century, i.e., in the year 1900 price of wheat in the District at Narsimhapur was 9.2 seers a rupee. Jowar was 12.1 seers a rupee in the same year. This price of wheat was the highest that obtained in the District right from 1891 to 1907. Reason for the rise prices was the famine conditions created by the general failure of monsoon in in the year 1899. Area under wheat in the District which was 1,57,896 acres in 1898-99 came down to 1,26,120 in 1899-1900. Similarly, the area under gram also came down from 99,256 acres in 1898-99 to 80,157 acres in 1899-1900. "The season was very unfavourable to wheat. The soil was dry, the heat above normal, and the usual dews did not fall. With so small a prospect of a successful crop, many cultivators left their fields unsown. The land that was sown gave a very poor outturn ....".[1] As against the previous year's total rainfall of 45.40, in the year 1899-1900 rainfall in the

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1899-1900, p. 30.

District was only 25.07." From 1900 to 1907 the lowest price of wheat was in the year 1904, i.e., 14.9 seers a rupee. Jowar was lowest in the year 1903, i.e., 29.4 seers a rupee. In the year 1908 again, the price of wheat increased and crossed the level of 1900. Same was the case of jowar. Wheat was sold at 7.82 seers and jowar 10 seers per rupee in the year 1908. The rise in prices was due to the crop failure, caused by premature cessation of monsoon. There was a rise of prices to famine level. From 1909 the price situation improved, and in the year 1913, i.e., a year preceding the First World War, wheat was sold at 10.65 seers and jowar 11.02 seers a rupee in the District.

In the first two years of War, i. e., 1914 and 1915, while the prices of wheat increased from the 1913 level, those of jowar decreased slightly. In the year 1916 there was a fall in prices both of wheat and jowar from the level obtaining in the previous years. This decline in prices may be attributed to the generally favorurable crop conditions in the year 1915-16, because of timely and normal rainfall. There was a general increase in the area under these crops and yield was also satisfactory. All these conditions contributed to the easing of price situation. In the year 1917, the prices of both the foodgrains increased slightly, but steep rise occurred in the year 1918, followed by further push upward in the year 1919. Inspite of the cessation of hostilities in Europe, prices in the District remained above the levels obtained at previous scarcity and famine conditions in the District. Reason for this may be sought in "The failure of late monsoon in September 1918 over large areas of the provinces, coupled with the extensive crop failure in other parts of India . . . . With prices at a level unheard of in the famines of twenty years ago, the situation was comlicated by the large number of children left orphans by influenza and by the enfeebling effects of the epidemic on the surviving adult population."[1] Thus it was the double disaster of drought and disease which kept the prices in the District hovering high.

Somehow price situation in the 'twenties of the Century remained more or less the same as that obtaining in the year 1918 and 1919. In the year 1923, there was a slight improvement in the price level. In this year, wheat was sold at 9.02 seers a rupee. There was an increase from this level in 1924 and further increase in 1925 wheat was sold at 7.15 seers, jowar 10.22 seers and gram 10.70 seers a rupee in the District. The price situation deteriorated from this level in the year 1929, rise in the jowar price being the highest, i.e., 5.14 seers a rupee, wheat and gram being 6.44 and 8.15 seers a rupee, respectively. The reason for this increase in price level may be sought in the climatic conditions of the year 1928-29, viz., "intense cold in the beginning of February, followed by rain and hail,"[2] damaged the wheat crop for the

1. Ibid, 1918-19, p. vi.
2. Ibid, 1928-29, p. 41.

second year in succession in the District, out-turn being 5.3 annas. Similarly, prolonged drought in September reduced the out-turn of jowar. In 1929-30 agricultural season was also unfavourable for jowar crop, rains being excessive in the middle of the monsoon and long break later. "The long break in September and October, and inadequate winter showers"[3] spoiled the yield of the wheat. Wheat which is an important crop in the District thus suffered continously over a period of years. Jowar, which is consumed as a substitute of wheat, also did not fair better. Because of these reasons, it was natural that the price of jowar with less area under cultivation and unsatisfactory outturn increased more than wheat.

From the year 1930 the price situation in the District had improved In this year wheat was sold at 8.3 seers, jowar 12.65 seers and gram 10.37 seers a rupee. Hereafter the prices in the District ruled low, generally. The lowest price of wheat was obtianed in the year 1933-34, i.e., 16.21 seers a rupee and lowest price of jowar in the year 1936, i.e., 26.41 seers a rupee. Highest price of wheat was obtained in the year 1937, i.e., 12.81 seers a rupee, and the highest price of jowar was also recorded in the same year, being 19.19 seers a rupee. The decade 1930-40 was one of economic depression all over the world. Low employment, lower off-take or commodities in the market, accumulation of stocks of the commodities, were the features of the economic conditions generally. As a result prices during this decade ruled low as compared to the previous decade with slight variations upwards and downwards from year to year depending on harvest conditions. Thus for example, in the year 1937 the reason for higher prices of both wheat and jowar was that the wheat crop was affected by severe cold, frost, hail-storms and rust, in December, while jowar crop was affected by heavy rains by the end of October and second and third weeks of November. As a result, stems of growing jowar crop flattened and ripening grain was damaged owing to the humid atmosphere and the soaking which the crop received. It may be noted here that the price level obtaining during 1930-1940, especially from 1931 to 1937, was not only lower than that in the decade immediately preceding it, but it compared favourably with the price level in the District right from the years 1891. The reasons for this low level might be traced mainly to the economic depression of the 'thirties, absence of famine conditions and out-break of violent epidemics, and generally favourable crop seasons from year to year.

As is well known the economic depression of the thirties was lifted by the conditions of the Second World War, rumblings of which were felt in the year 1938. It is not possible to analyse the variations in prices during the period of the War in relation to good or bad harvest conditions obtaining in the District. Though it cannot be said that agricultural seasons in the

3. Ibid, 1929-30, p. 57.

District were good all along the War years, yet they were not wholly bad either to warrant the continually increasing prices, which are given below :—

(In Seers per Re.)

Year	Wheat	Jowar	Gram	Rice
1938	14.8	—	15.7	12.0
1939	13.3	21.6	14.3	12.0
1940	11.2	16.2	12.4	12.0
1941	11.0	20.0	13.8	7.2
1942	6.8	11.3	8.2	5.1
1944	2.10	5.10	4.2	1.9
1945	4.25	—	5.0	4.0

Note :— Wheat and gram prices are for the month of May, while jowar and rice prices are for the month of February of the respective years.

Scarcity conditions created by the Second World War were mainly responsible for increase in prices. In the year 1944, the price increase appears to be the highest in the District and this may be attributed besides War scarcity to the conditions of late wheat which was shrivelled on account of rust, and blackening of early wheat on account of rain. Though the season was favourable for a *kharif* crop like jowar the increase in the price of jowar was inevitable, as a substitute grain for wheat. In order to ensure supply of foodgrains and other commodities, foodgrains procurement, price control and distribution was undertaken by the Government, throughout the State. Deputy Commissioners were empowered to fix maximum prices of wheat in parity with the maximum price at Hapur.

In the year 1946, there was an increase in the prices in the District. Wheat was sold at 3.75 seers as against 4.25 seers of the previous year, and gram was sold at 4.50 seers as against 5 seers per rupee of the previous year. The increase in the prices of jowar, wheat, gram, etc., was general throughout the State in this year and may be said to have been reflected in the price level obtaining in the District. In the year 1947, wheat, jowar as well as gram crops, suffered on account of bad climatic conditions. The wheat crop which was very good in the beginning at the time of its maturity had a very servere set-back owing to attack of rust caused by frequent occurrence of cloudy and rainy weather. Same was the case of gram. These conditions of crops are reflected in the prices of these foodgrains. There was a general increase in the wholesale harvest prices of jowar, wheat, gram, etc., in the State. The retail price of wheat in the District increased to 3.3 seers a rupee as against 3.75 seers in the previous year. Jowar was sold at 5.5 seers a

rupee and rice at 3.5 seers. The year 1948 besides being unfavourable for wheat, jowar and gram crops was one in which the policy of gradual decontrol of foodgrains introduced by the State Government at the end of the year 1947 proved failure. Partly as a result of the policy of decontrol of foodgrains and also due to bad harvest conditions, prices of foodgrains increased generally in the State as also in the District. Except for rice, the prices during the year 1948 were higher than in the year 1944. Wheat was sold at 2 seers, jowar 4.5 seers, gram 3.8 seers and rice 3.1 seers a rupee. The price situation in the year 1949 still worsened. Wheat was sold at 1.75 seers, jowar 4 seers, gram 3.5 seers and rice 3.35 seers a rupee. The prices of wheat, jowar, gram and rice from 1946 to 1950 were.

(In Seers per Re.)

Year	Wheat	Jowar	Gram	Rice
1946	3.75	—	4.50	—
1947	3.3	5 5	—	3.5
1948	2.0	4.5	3.8	3.1
1949	1.75	4.0	3.5	3.35
1950	2.7	3.5	4.0	2.1

Note :— Wheat and gram prices are for the month of May, while jowar and rice prices are for the month of February of the respective years.

Comparing the prices during the War time and those during the post-war period, from 1946 to 1950 it seems that the price situation in the War time was far better in the District than that in the years that immediately followed. From the records available, this does not appear to be a peculiar feature for the District alone but it was a general condition in the whole of the State. Many a good reason for this situation may be given, like uncertain political situation in the Country as a whole after cessation of War, distrurbed conditions, division of the Country and shifting of population on a large-scale, experiments with decontrol, and added to all this not too happy harvest conditions.

The year 1951 opens an era of planned economic development for the Country and its component units, the States. Governments at the Centre and the State naturally gave priority to all engrossing problem of stepping up production of foodgrains. As a matter of fact the Grow More Food Scheme evolved as early as in the year 1943, was in operation all these years. Helped by the favourable seasons, position in respect of production of foodgrains was considerably improved. As compared to the year 1950-51 production of jowar and rice in the District[1] increased in the year 1951-52. There was a decline in the production of wheat, gram and linseed in the year 1951-52 as

1. Production as well as prices are for Hoshangabad District of which Narsimhapur formed part. Prices are Average Harvest Prices.

compared to 1950-51. However, there was a decline in the District not only in case of rice and jowar, but for wheat, gram and linseed also. The reason for this fall in prices of wheat, gram and linseed inspite of lower out-turn in the year 1951-52 might be attributed to the better out-turn of these crops in the previous year 1950-51. In the year 1952-53 there was a general increase in the prices of all the above foodgrains, except that of jowar, though the out-turn of all crops was higher in this year as compared to the previous one. Price of wheat in the year 1952-53 was Rs. 17.47 per maund as compared to Rs. 16.25 per maund for the year 1951-52. Rice was quoted at Rs 19.31 as against Rs. 17.50. Gram was Rs 16.95 per maund as against Rs 11.44 and linseed was Rs 18.56 per maund compared to Rs 17 per maund of the previous year. There was a fall in the price of jowar from Rs 15.19 to Rs. 10.28 per maund in 1952-53. There was a general fall in the prices of all the foodgrains in the year 1953-54 and further fall in the prices in 1954-55. Out-turn of wheat during both these years had increased considerably, i.e., from 92.5 thousand tons in 1952-53 to 112.1 thousand tons in 1953-54 and 120.4 thousand tons in 1954-55. As might be expected, prices of wheat for these years were decreasing, i.e., from Rs. 17.47 per maund in 1952-53 to Rs. 15.31 and Rs. 11.50 in the years 1953-54 and 1954-55, respectively. Out-turn of rice for the above years was on the decline and yet the prices were falling. In case of jowar there was an increase in the out-turn in the year 1953-54 as compared to 1952-53, but in the year 1954-55 there was a fall in the out-turn over the previous year. Out-turn of gram was higher in the year 1954-55 as compared to the level of out-turn for the years 1952-53 and 1953-54. There was no substantial change in the out turn of linseed crop. Thus, there was a steady fall in the prices of all foodgrains in the District from 1952-53 to 1954-55, but this was not necessarily the result of simultaneous increase in the production of these foodgrains. Except in case of wheat fall in prices was not accompained by the increase in out-turn. In the subsequent year 1955-56 there was a general increase in the prices of all the above foodgrains and was followed by further general increase in 1956-57. The position in respect of prices from 1950-51 to 1956-57 was as under :-

(In Rs. per maund)

Year	Wheat	Jowar	Gram	Rice	Linseed
1950-51	18.50	19.44	11.69	23.02	31.12
1951-52	16.25	15.19	11.44	17.50	17.00
1952-53	17.47	10.28	16.95	19.31	18.55
1953-54	15.31	9.94	11.06	18.25	16.44
1954-55	11.50	6.50	5.81	18.00	11.44
1955-56	14.94	6.87	10.31	15.12	22.69
1956-57	16.44	14.50	12.19	21.56	19.25

Note :- Prices are for Hoshangabad District of which Narsimhapur formed part.

With the year 1956-57 the Second Five Year Plan period begins. The position of prices and out-turn of different crops in the District was as under:—

(In Rs. per maund)

Year	Wheat	Jowar	Gram	Rice	Linseed
1956-57	16.00	10.37	12.62	—	19.19
1957-58	14.98	10.52	10.80	—	13.00
1958-59	17.58	10.58	15.17	18.50	18.50
1959-60	15.35	10.16	13.37	18.54	19.33
1960-61	14.13	10.29	13.06	22.80	22.45
1961-62	17.85	11.23	15.25	23.41	20.03

In the year 1962-63 the prices in the District of the above foodgrains were, wheat Rs. 39.27, rice Rs. 68.87, jowar Rs 24.83 and gram Rs. 34.14 per quintal.

(In '000 tons)

Year	Wheat	Jowar	Gram	Rice	Linseed
1956-57	33.4	13.0	65.1	10.6	1
1957-58	17.3	20.5	27.6	8.0	0.4
1958-59	25.9	32.1	35.4	11.3	0.8
1959-60	31.9	38.1	42.1	10.7	0.8
1960-61	35.3	32.8	48.5	10.0	0.5
1961-62	42.6	20.2	45.7	15.9	0.8
1962-63	42.5	32.1	60.8	11.5	0.9

Note :— Prices and out-turn figures are for Narsimhapur District.

Taking the figures of out-turn of different crops in relation to their prices in a particular year, it becomes obvious that increase or decrease in out-turn has no effect on decreasing or increasing the prices. It is worth noting that inspite of the subtantial changes in the out-turn of jowar, the prices all through the five years remained more or less the same. In case of wheat inspite of the substantial reduction in out-turn in the year 1957-58 its price in that year was low and in 1958-59 with the increased out-turn price had increased. From 1958-59, however, increase in out-turn of wheat in the subsquent years is accompanied by decrease in prices. Similar trend in out-turn and prices is observed in case of gram from 1958-59. Fall in out-turn of rice from 1958-59, is accompanied by rise in prices. However, in the present day conditions of trade and commerce and planned economic conditions, analysis of prices of commodities on the basis of supply and demand becomes inadequate.

Taking in First Five Year Plan period prices as given above from 1951-52 to 1955-56 which are for Hoshangabad District, and the price level in the Second Five Year Plan period and working out averages for five years for different foodgrains, there appears general increase in the prices of all foodgrains in the District in the Second Plan period. Thus average price of wheat in the Second Plan period increased to Rs. 15.60 from the average of Rs. 15.09 per maund in the First Plan period. Similarly, price of jowar increased from Rs. 9.55 to Rs. 10.38, gram from Rs. 11.11 to Rs. 13 and linseed from Rs. 17.22 to Rs. 18.49 per maund.

LEVEL OF WAGES

In olden times the wages of agricultural labourer used to be paid in grain with various small perquisites in addition, like pair of shoes, blanket, waist-coat of cotton cloth, or in lieu of it a pair of *dhotis* or loin-cloth. It was recorded in the year 1891-93 that the cash equivalent of wages in grain plus perquisites given to agricultural labourer in the District worked out to Rs. 4 per month. The rates of wages paid to mason in the year 1893 were Rs 12 per month, while carpenter and blacksmith got Rs. 16[1] per month. In the year 1896 increase of annas 0-4-0 was recorded in the wage level for agricultural labourer and mason, but wages for carpenter and blacksmith were reduced from Rs. 16 per month to the level of mason, i.e., Rs. 12-4-0 per month. In the year 1897 while the wage-rate of agricultural labourer increased from Rs. 4-4-0 per month to Rs. 5, wages for mason, carpenter and blacksmith decreased from Rs 12-4-0 to Rs. 12 per month. In the year 1898 wages of agricultural labourer decreasd from Rs 5 to Rs 4-12-0 per month, and in the year 1899 again reached to Rs 5. The wages rates for mason, carpenter and blacksmith, however, remained constant at Rs. 12 per month during these years. It is difficult to account for the stability in the rates of wages for skilled workers like mason, carpenter and blacksmith, while wage-rates for common agricultural labourer were rising and falling from year to year. As a matter of fact the number of skilled workers is determined at a particular time and though any downward revision of their wages becomes difficult, the skilled workers, because of their limited numbers, remain in a better position to get the wages revised in an upward direction. The year 1899 was a year of severe famine conditions and if common agricultural labourer could get higher wages, it is difficult to understand how skilled labour of mason, carpenter, and blacksmith, was sold at constant rate of Rs 12 per month, the level which obtained in earlier years. However, from the year 1900 to 1903 the wage-rates for agricultural labourer and skilled workers like mason, carpenter and blacksmith remained at Rs 4 and Rs 12 per month, respectively.

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1. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, Vol. B, p. 34.

In the year 1903-1904, out-break of plague was recorded, which had resulted in the scarcity of labour, and in the year 1904 the rates of wages for common agricultural labour and skilled workers increased simultaneously. As may be expected, increase in the rates of wages for mason, carpenter and blacksmith was more, i.e., from Rs. 12 to Rs. 15 per month while in case of common agricultural labourer increase was from Rs 4 to Rs 5 per month. The old phenomenon of constant wage level for skilled workers again occurred in the year 1907. In this year wages for common agricultural labourer registered an increase of annas 0-8-0, i.e., from Rs 5 to Rs 5-8-0 per month, but wage-rates for mason, carpenter, etc., remained at Rs 15 per month and continued right upto the year 1916, though in the meanwhile in the year 1911 the wage rate for common agricultural labourer had fallen to Rs 4-8-0 per month, increased in the next year to Rs 5 and in the year 1914 further increased to Rs 6 per month.

In the year 1913, a year preceding the First World War, wage-rates for common agricultural labourer and for skilled workers like mason, etc., were Rs 5 and Rs 15 per month, respectively. In the year 1914 there was an increase in wages for common agricultural labourer from Rs 5 to Rs 6 per month while wages for skilled workers remained constant. This increase in the rate of wages of agricultural labourer alone cannot in any way be attributed to the increased demand for ordinary labour due to War conditions. As a matter of fact, in subsequent years of War, i.e., in 1915 and 1916, while rates of wages for skilled workers continued to be Rs 15 per month, level of wages for common agricultural labourer came down from Rs 6 to Rs 5 per month in 1915 and remained at that level in 1916. It was the year 1917 which brought about the general upward trend in the wage level. In this year rates of wages for common agricultural labourer increased from Rs 5 to Rs 6 per month; wages for mason and carpenter increased from Rs 15 to Rs 20 per month and those of blacksmith from Rs 15 to Rs 24 per month. This increase in wage rates might be attributed to the increase in prices of foodgrains. As has been stated in the portion on price level in this Chapter, it was not actually during the War years that the price level was higher, but after the War was over. Prices soared from 1918 onwards and so also wages. In the year 1918 wage level of common agricultural labourer further increased from Rs 6 per month to Rs 7 and Rs. 8; while wage-rates of skilled workers-mason, carpenter and blacksmith were quoted from Rs 20 to Rs 25 per month. In the year 1919 and 1920 there were further upward movements in wage-rates, which might be said to be the result of commensurate movement in price level.

In the year 1920 and 1921 wages of common agricultural labourer were Rs 10 to Rs 15 per month and for mason, carpenter, etc., Rs 30 per month. In the years 1922 and 1923 there was a fall in level of wages for common

agricultural labourer, i.e., Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 per month and wages of skilled workers were recorded at Rs. 30 to Rs. 35 per month in the year 1923. It is difficult to explain these movements of wages in opposite direction for unskilled and skilled categories of workers with any degree of accuracy or certainty for want of relevant information. However, these movements are likely to have been caused by changes in the composition of working force. In the year 1924 while there was a rise in the level of wages of only common agricultural labourer varying from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 per month, there was, however, no change in the level of wages of skilled workers. In the year 1925, the level of wages for unskilled as well as skilled workers remained unchanged. Increase in the wage-rates of common labourer in the year 1924 might be attributed to the rise in prices in that year but it cannot be explained as to how further increase in the prices of foodgrains in the year 1925 did not produce any corresponding effect on the wage-rates, either of unskilled or skilled workers. This and similar conditions discussed earlier show that increase or decrease in the wage level cannot be attributed to the corresponding changes in the prices even of the commodities forming part of the necessities of life especially in the short run. In the year 1926, there was again an increase in the wage-rates of common agricultural labourer but only the minmium had increased from Rs. 10 of the previous year to Rs. 11-4-0, maximum remaining the same, i.e., Rs. 15 per month.

In case of skilled workers, while there was no change in the minimum rate of Rs. 30 for all the three categories i e., mason, carpenter and blacksmith, maximum level had increased from Rs. 35 to Rs. 45 per month in case of carpenter and Rs. 40 in case of blacksmith. Maximum for mason remained unchanged at Rs. 35 per month. During three subsequent years, i.e., 1927, 1928 and 1929, wage-rates for unskilled workers were from Rs. 8 to 15 per month, while for skilled workers of all the three categories the rates remained ta Rs. 30 to Rs. 45 per month.

In the year 1930 the rate of wages for agricultural labourer was Rs. 8 to Rs. 12 per month instead of Rs. 8 to Rs. 15 in the preceding year. There was no change in the rates of wages for skilled worker in this year. But in subsequent years wages began to fall for all categories of workers, and in the year 1933-34 the wage-rate for common labourer was Rs. 6 per month while for mason, carpenter and blacksmith the rate was uniform at Rs. 15 per month only. Reason for this low level of wages might be sought in the general economic depression of the thirties. Widespread unemployment brought about by inactivity in economic sphere, coupled with lower prices, brought down the level of wages everywhere and also in the District. In the year 1937 wages for common agricultural labourer in the District were from Rs. 6 to Rs. 8 per month, while for the skilled workers wages varied from Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per month. This level was about the same that was obtained in the closing

years of the First World War, i.e., 1917 and 1918. These rates of wages prevailed also in the year 1938.

In the year 1939 the first year of the Second World War the rate of wages for common labourer was quoted at Rs.7-8-0 per month while that for the skilled workers at Rs. 18-12-0 per month. The range of the rate from minimum to maximum being not available as for the previous year, it is not possible to state whether these rates meant an increase or decrease from the wage levels of 1937 and 1938. However, during the Second World War, as there was no question of either falling in price or wage level, these rates may, therefore, be taken as indicating upward movement in the rates of wages. Rates of wages for subsequent War years were :—

(In Rs. per month)

Year	Common Labourer	Mason and Builder	Carpenter	Worker in Iron and Hardware
1939	7-8-0	18-1-20	18-12-0	18-12-0
1940	7-8-0	20-0-0	20-0-0	16-0-0
1942	7-0-0 to 9-6-0	20-0-0 to 26-4-0	20-0-0 to 24-0-0	22-8-0 to 26-4-0
1943	12-0-0 to 15-0-0	30-0-0 to 45-0-0	30-0-0 to 45-0-0	30-0-0 to 45-0-0
1945	12-0-0 to 15-0-0	30-0-0 to 45-0-0	30-0-0 to 45-0-0	30-0-0 to 45-0-0

Note :—Wage-rates in the Table for the years 1939 and 1940 are for Gadarwara town. Narsimhapur District formed part of Hoshangabad District during this period and wage-rates from 1942 to 1945 are for Hoshangabad District.

The level of wage rates prevailing during the Second World War, as in the Table above, may be found to be generally the same as in the 'twenties of the Century. As may be expected, after the cessation of hostilities, there was no fall in the wage-rates for different categories of workers. It has been observed that there was also no fall in the level of prices of commodities after the end of the War. On the contrary, wages and prices both increased in the post-War years. In the post-War years 1948 and 1949 the price level was the highest. The wage-rates for unskilled and skilled workers in these years were Rs. 22-8-0 to Rs. 30 for common labourer; Rs. 90 to Rs. 120 per month for mason; Rs. 75 to Rs. 90 per month for carpenter and Rs. 60 to Rs 90 per month for a worker in iron and hardware. Thus taking the maximum wage-

rate as obtained in the year 1945, for all these categories of workers, the increase in the wage-rates in the years 1948 and 1949 was double in case of common labourer, carpenter and worker in iron and hardware, while in case of mason, the increase was more than double the level in 1945. In the year 1950 there was a further increase in the wage-rates. The increase in the wage-rates, besides *being attributed* to the increase in prices of foodgrains, etc., might also be referred to the Government legislation regarding minimum wages, and other labour welfare measures that were introduced in the year 1948. Besides these, the National Government have undertaken the planned economic development of the Country beginning from the First Five Year Plan, creating a demand for labour—skilled as well as unskilled—required for implementation of the industrial development projects.

From the year 1951, the first year of the First Five Year Plan, the wage-rates for different categories of workers in the District were :—

(Rs. per day)

Year	Common Labourer	Mason	Carpenter	Worker in Iron and Hardware
1951	1-0-0 to 4-0-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0	4-0-0 to 5-0-0	5-0-0 to 6-0-0
1952	1-0-0 to 1-8-0	2-0-0 to 4-0-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0	4-0-0 to 5-0-0
1953	1-0-0 to 1-8-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0	4-0-0 to 5-0-0
1954	1-0-0 to 1-4-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0
1955	1-0-0 to 1-4-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0	3-0-0 to 4-0-0

Note :—Wage-rates are for Gadarwara Town. For the years 1951 and 1952 wage-rates for skilled workers are contract system wage-rates. Narsimhapur formed part of Hoshangabad District during this period.

From the above Table the downward trend in wage-rates, at least for unskilled labour appears to have set in from the year 1954. This was commensurate with the downward trend in the prices of foodgrains observed in the year 1953-54 and 1954-55. However, it cannot be said for certain that downward trend in wage-rates was the cause of fall in prices.

The year 1956 was the beginning of the Second Five Year Plan. The wage-rates for different categories of workers skilled and unskilled during the Plan period were :—

(Rs. per day)

Year	Other Agricultural Labour	Carpenter	Blacksmith	Cobbler
1956	1.00	3.00	2-50	1.50
1957	1.00	3.00	2.50	1.50
1958	1.00	3.00	2.50	1.50
1959	1.00	3.80	3.00	2.00
1960	1.00	3.00	3.00	2·50
1961	1.00	3.00	3.00	2.50
1962	1.25	3.00	3.00	2.00
1963	1.25	3.00	3.00	2.00

Note :—Wage-rates for the year 1956 are for Hoshangabad District as in the month of May. For other years the wages are for Narsimhapur District as in the month of June.

It may be noted from the above Table that during the Second Plan period the wage level for all categories of workers has become stabilized. Reason for this might be found in the implementation of minimum wages legislation not only in industries but in agriculture also. Doubtless this stability in the rates of wages might also be partly due to the success of the Government efforts to check upward movement of the prices of essential commodities. Though the price level in the Second Plan period on an average was generally higher than the First Five Year Plan period, yet there was no increase in the wage level.

GENERAL LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT

According to the pattern of livelihood obtaining in the District it has been stated in the earlier portion of this Chapter that 73.54 per cent of the "workers" were engaged in agriculture, as per 1961 Census. The industries-household and manufacturing other than household, provided employment to 8.13 per cent of the total "workers". This shows that employment opportunities, which are generally considered against the background of developed or developing industrial and services sectors in the economy, are extremely low. The total number of "workers" in agriculture in the year 1961 was 1,40,424. Out of this 95,779 were classified as "cultivators" and 44,645 as "agricultural labourers". For Census purposes the term "cultivator" was defined as he or she engaged "as employer, single worker, or family worker in (a) cultivation of land or supervision or direction of cultivation of land owned

or held from Government and (b) cultivation of land or supervision or direction of cultivation of land held from private persons or institution for payment in money, kind or share". This definition explains the larger number of persons classified as "cultivators" which included the persons in the family working on land or helping in the cultivation thereof, restricting the scope of employment in agriculture of the hired labour. Thus, it is not only the industrial and services sectors in the economy of the District which did not offer scope for employment, but even in agriculture the employment opportunities happened to be limited. The Employment Exchange Officer, Narsimhapur also observed in this connection that "the agriculturists and land owners of the district work themselves for the whole year in their fields and some of them engage unskilled workers for a few days in the season".

The manufacturing industries in the District as has been found from the list of factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948 are *Dal* Mills, Saw Mills, Bidi factories and Bricks and Tiles making factories. In the year 1962, there were 19 registered *Dal* Mills in the District, out of which 12 were reported to be closed during the year. Average daily employment in the working factories was about 80. There existed only one Saw Mill, employing about 10 workers daily. Out of the three Bricks and Tiles making factories, one was closed during the year. The two factories employed on an average 50 workers daily. Bidi factories numbered 14, of which four were closed during the year, the remaining factories employed on an average 725 workers daily. To these registered factory establishments may be added some unregistered factory establishments also, but the very nature of the industries like *Dal* and Saw Milling, Bricks and Tiles, etc., is disheartening when considered in relation to the employment opportunities. This can be substantiated from the figures of employment in the industrial sector provided by the Employment Exchange Officer for the quarter ending 30th June 1963 and the 30th September, 1963. The number of industrial employees, which is not restricted to the registered factories, was 4,989 on the 30th June, 1963, which by the 30th September, 1963 happened to be 730. Giving the reason for the decrease in the number of industrial employment by 4,259 workers during the quarter, it was stated that the reduction was due to completion of seasonal work. It is possible that the "agricultural labourer" or even the so-called "cultivator" of the 1961 Census classification, during off-season in agriculture moves to the urban areas, works in the *Dal* Mill and Bidi factory, as the case may be, for a time and goes back in time to pursue his labour on land. Under these circumstances, additional burden on account of the increase in population is being borne by the agriculture. On the general employment situation in the District the Employment Exchange Officer observed that in the public sector establishments there existed some vacancies of teachers, clerical and class IV office staff. The scope for employment in semi-skilled and unskilled

labour existed in development activities such as doubling of railway line, minor irrigation, and construction work in Public Works Department in the Block areas.

Employment Exchange

The separate Employment Exchange for the Narsimhapur District is of recent origin. It was established on the 15th Feburary, 1963. Prior to this, the Employment Exchange, Jabalpur, was looking after the work in this connection for the District. The Scheme for the collection of Employment Market Information from the public and private sectors in the District has also been introduced. The number of persons registered at the Exchange, the number of placements and the number on Live Register were :—

Year	No. of Registrations	No. of Placements	No. on Live Register
1963	3,417	37	1,193
1964	3,116	547	1,450
1965	3,163	271	1,611

NATIONAL PLANNING AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

In the planned economic development efforts of the Country, the broad objectives of the Community Development Programme were aptly described by Dr. Douglas Ensminger of the Ford Foundation as "to assist villages in planning and carrying out an integrated multiphased family and village plan directed towards increasing agricultural production, improving existing village crafts and industries and organising new ones, providing minimum essential amenities like improved health practices, educational facilities for children and adults, recreational facilities and programme, better housing and better living conditions in homes and creating leadership as well as institution at village level, which could sustain a tempo of the development in the village." Beginning in this respect was made in the District in the year 1953, when first Community Development Block was started at Gotegaon on the 2nd October of that year. This Block consisted of 248[1] villages with an area of 303 sq. miles and population of 61,099[2] persons. During the subsequent years of the First and the Second Five Year Plans, five more Community Development Blocks were started in different years as under.[3]

1. "Particulars Relating to Development Blocks in Madhya Pradesh", p. 11.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid.

Name of the Block	Date of Establishment	No. of Villages	Area in sq. Miles	Population
(1) Chawarpatha	1.4.54	222	320.5	61,916
(2) Narsimhapur	1.4.57	188	336.4	52,904
(3) Babai Chichli	1.4.58	143	324	53,897
(4) Kareli	2.10.60	164	285	84,520
(5) Sainkheda	1.10.61	105	201	66,977

According to 1961 Census figures, the District had a population of 4,12,406 persons of which 3,81,313 or 92.46 per cent of the total comes under the benefic influence of Block Development activities. There were 1,075 villages in the District inhabited and uninhabited of which 1,070 are under different Block areas. It may thus be seen that beginning from the mid-year of the First Five Year Plan practically whole of the District was covered by the multiphased Community Development activities.

The achievements in respect of different Community Development objectives as stated earlier are conceived as financial and physical targets achieved. Achievement of physical targets, which is of importance, is reckoned not in terms of the results obtained in different spheres of activities but the means, methods and measures adopted by the Block Development machinery. Thus in the sphere of agricultural production it was found that during whole of the Second Five Year Plan period 39,085 maunds of improved seeds and 26,553 maunds of chemical fertilizers were distributed in all the four Development Blocks. For the first two years of the Third Five Year Plan viz., 1961-62 and 1962-63 the total quantity of improved seeds distributed in all the six Blocks was 33,860. In addition, the seeds distributed other than those of cereals were 4,881 maunds. The quantity of chemical and other fertilizers distributed was 11,512 and 23,830 maunds, respectively.

As a result of the use of improved seeds increase in the yield of wheat and paddy, was reported to be about one maund per acre. Besides distribution of improved seed and chemical fertilizers, compost-pits are dug to prepare and conserve manure from village rubbish. In order to make the villagers conversant with improved agricultural practices and use of better implements, agricultural demonstrations are also arranged. During Second Five Year Plan period, in Gotegaon, Chawarpatha, Narsimhapur and Babai-Chichli Blocks, 5,940 snch demonstrations were arranged. The corresponding figure for the two years of the Third Plar was 2,496. Cultivators are also using insecticides for prevention or cure of crops from pests, as also for treatment of seeds. Allied to these activities are the provision of pedigree animals,

irrigation and land reclamation. It appears that in all the Block areas well-irrigation is prevalent. In this connection work on construction of new wells and repairing of old ones is generally undertaken. During the Second Five Year Plan period, 252 new wells were constructed and 253 old ones repaired in the four Blocks referred to above. During the years 1961-62 and 1962-63, the number of irrigation wells (*kutcha* and *pucka*) constructed was 367, and old wells repaired or renovated numbered 312 in all the six Blocks. Land reclamation in different Blocks was of the order of 5,750 acres in the four Blocks during the Second Plan, while during the two years of the Third Plan the area reclaimed was 5,867 acres.

In the sphere of health and sanitation Block Development activities consist of establishing Primary and Subsidiary Health Centres, provision of drinking water, construction of rural latrines, *pucka* drains, sokage pits, etc. Achievements in this connection in the Community Development Blocks in the District upto 1962-63 were :—

Items	Gote-gaon	Chawar-patha	Narsim-hapur	Babai-Chichli	Kareli	Sain-kheda
1. Primary and Subsidiary Health Centres set-up (No.)	4	3	1	2	1	—
2. Drinking water wells constructed (No.)	86	270	84	99	95	3
3. Old drinking water wells repaired (No.)	33	63	44	47	18	—
4. Rural latrines constructed (No.)	146	509	57	97	152	—
5. *Pucka* drains constructed (yards)	9,159	2,282	728	116	—	—
6. Soakage-pits dug (No.)	352	565	242	796	—	—

Campaign against illiteracy in the rural areas is being carried out through Block Development activities like starting of literacy centres especially for adults, establishment of reading rooms, libraries, etc. During the Second Five Year Plan period 114 literacy centres were started in the four Block

areas of the District and 1,662 adults were made literate during the same period. The number of reading-rooms and libraries started in all the four Block areas was 68. During the years 1961-62 and 1962-63, in all the six Blocks 101 literacy centres were started and 639 adults were made literate.

Communication facilities are also being developed by laying down *kutcha* roads and construction of culverts, etc. In Gotegaon Block area, 123 miles of new *kutcha* roads were constructed. In Chawarpatha, Narsimhapur and Babai-Chichli Block areas total of 80 miles of roads were constructed during the Second Plan period. Laying down of these new roads had facilitated the transport of agricultural and forest produce from these areas to Narsimhapur and Gadarwara towns, where better prices for different products are secured. In the years 1961-62 and 1962-63 no progress appears to have been made in respect of the construction of roads.

In the sphere of co-operation, service societies, primary societies or better farming societies are started in all the Block areas. In Gotegaon, Chawarpatha, Narsimhapur and Babai-Chichli, 143,73,47 and 72 societies were started, respectively during the Second Five Year Plan period. During the years 1961-62 and 1962-63 the number of societies started was 81.

Development of different village industries is also receiving attention of the Block Development authorities. The common village industries are carpentry, tailoring, blacksmithy, soap-making, oil *ghanis*, leather and brick-making. In Gotegaon Block area these industries were assisted to the tune of Rs. 63,902 from the year 1957-58 to 1962-63. Some 122 families engaged in these industries were assisted in earning their livelihood. In Babai-Chichli Block area, besides assistance given to the traditional village industries as above, small industrial units for preparation of lemon squash, *agarbatti*-manufacturing, were also started. Machines were supplied on hire-purchase basis. In this Block area manufacture of brass metal utensils is carried on on a co-operative basis. The utensils manufactured here are marketed throughout the Country. Besides this, there are three Telghani Societies and one each of Charmakars, Lac and Stone workers. Centres for training workers in carpentry, tailoring, cane and bamboo works also exist in this Block area. In Narsimhapur Block area about Rs. 30,000 were given by way of assistance for development of different village industries. In Chawarpatha Block area also co-operatives of leather workers and carpenters were organized and about Rs 55,000 were given by way of assistance during two years viz., 1960-61 and 1961-62.

Participation of the people or community as a whole in all the development activities is the basic principle of the Block Development programme. The assistance of people is not only sought bnt encouraged. As against the total Government expenditure of Rs 23.70 lakhs during the Socond Five Year

Plan period in the four Block areas value of people's contribution was estimated to be Rs 9.97 lakhs. During the Third Five Year Plan, i.e., upto 31st March, 1965, Government expenditure was Rs 24.32 lakhs.

The effects of all the different Block Development activities on the socio-economic conditions of the people in the area is an interesting and enlightening subject-matter of study, but it is difficult to ascertain the effects of Community Development activities separately from those of other planned development activities of similar nature. In the absence of any such evaluation studies in connection with Block Development activities in the District, it can only be said that since something is being done, where there was nothing previously, to that extent conditions of people are likely to be better.

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

The question whether the status of a district should be conferred upon Narsimhapur or not, seems to have been considered by the Government right from the beginning of the 19th Century when most of it lying to the south of Narmada became a part of the British territory.[1] The parganas of Chanwarpatha and Tendukhera were added to this District in 1825. Nearly two decades after the British take-over Narsimhapur was annexed to Hoshangabad District in pursuance of "a plan drawn up for the diminution of the number of districts", but the plan having proved to be of "doubtful expediency"[2] had to be scrapped in 1843. The Bundela Rising of 1843 led to the revival of the District into which the Taluq of Hirapur was also added. However, well-nigh a century later, in 1931, Narsimhapur was again amalgamated into Hoshangabad District,[3] and this arrangement continued till the 31st October, 1956, when it regained the status of a district.

Narsimhapur District, as all other districts of the British India, was administered by a Deputy Commissioner. There were two tahsils in the District, each under the management of an Indian Sub-Collector called a Tahsildar.

The duties of the Deputy Commissioner, a position analogous to that of the present day Collector, were various. He was the head of the district, the chief revenue collector and was the chief magistrate of the district with special powers of imprisonment upto 7 years in certain criminal cases. His original jurisdiction was unlimited in extent and he exercised general supervision over the working of the subordinate civil courts. He was also the chief of the police in his capacity as the District Magistrate. He exercised control over the medical, educational, forest and public works departments, with the respective district heads assisting him. Further he was the Registrar for Marriages and the head of the local agencies for management of roads, ferries, encamping

1. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 30.
2. Ibid.
3. C.P. and Berar Administration Report, 1931-32, p. 28.

grounds, public gardens and rest houses. These duties were so numerous and varied that it could be safely said that the miscellaneous work of a Deputy Commissioner often occupied more time than his regular duties.[1]

The Deputy Commissioner was assisted by Assistant Commissioners and Extra-Assistant Commissioners, who also exercised judicial powers, civil or criminal or both.

The control over the forest which was vested in the collector even after 1861, was gradually withdrawn from him for technical reasons. At this stage a separate forest Department came into the picture. Yet, the Deputy Commissionary continued to be the pivot round which the district-administration revolved. In 1888-89 he was directed to pay attention to the sanitary condition of the villages and purity of water supply.[2]

That the Judiciary should be separated from the executive was a policy accepted in principle much earlier, but executed in stages. A begining was made in this direction during 1891-92 when a small number of judicial officers were appointed to relieve a few administrative officers of their judicial functions.[3] Four Divisional Judges relieved the Commissioners of their judicial charge, both civil and criminal, in the year 1901.[4] Furthermore, the Deputy Commissioners were relieved of their judicial work on the civil side and also of their control over the courts of Civil Judges in the district.

Later on, after the Reforms of 1909, the Deputy Commissioner was made directly responsible for the assessment and collection of income tax and for the administration of the Excise and Stamp Acts.[5]

The sub-divisional system of administration was also introduced by about this time to enable the Deputy Commissioners to attend to only the important matters. Accordingly, Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners were placed in charge of one or more tahsils and were given legal powers of Sub-Divisional Magistrates in criminal matters and some powers under revenue laws.

The Deputy Commissioners were given powers to disburse grants at their discretion for rural uplift after the Reforms of 1935. The improvement of fair-weather roads and provision of causeways on village roads were also undertaken from such grants.[6]

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1. Ibid, 1892-93, pp. 18-19.
2. Ibid, 1889-89, part I, p. iv.
3. Ibid, 1891-92, p. iv.
4. Ibid, 1901-02, p. xi.
5. Ibid, 1911-12, p. 19.
6. Ibid, 1936-37, p. 66.

On the out break of the Second World War, when the Government were confronted with problems of greater magnitude and complexity, the Provincial War Committee with branches at the district and tahsil levels, was formed to assist in war efforts. Besides, contributing in cash and kind to the War fund, the district and tahsil committees helped in recruitment efforts. The committees also organised savings and investment drives.[1]

Since the introduction of the local self-government in the urban and rural areas, the Collector also exercised supervisory powers and control over the District Councils and Local Boards and to some extent on the Municipal Committees. In 1948, Janapada Sabhas replaced the District Councils and Extra Assistant Commissioners were appointed as Chief Executive Officers.[2]

The launching of the First Five Years Plan increased the duties and responsibilities of the Deputy Commissioner, who naturally had to be made an agency for the effective implementation of the Plan. The Deputy Commissioner, occupying as he did a key position in the changed set-up, was made the Chairman of both, the District and Block Development Committees. The Deputy Commissioner's role in the changed set-up was again clarified in 1954 when Government made him the Chief Controlling and Co-ordinating authority for the activities of various departments engaged in development work.[3]

During 1957, the designations of the Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner and Extra-Assistant Commissioner were changed to those of Collector, Assistant Collector and Deputy Collector, respectively.

After the revival of the Narsimhapur District the collectorate started functioning at Narsimhapur since 31st October, 1956.

Keeping in view the fact that the policies of the Government are mainly implemented at the district and subordinate levels the Government have recently decided to further strengthen the position of the Collector.[4] It has been decided that the Collector would be the Chief co-ordinating authority for all departments, except Judiciary, Sales Tax and Labour departments, at the district level and that utmost importance would be given to his suggestions. Besides the co-ordination work, the Collector has been vested with two specific powers. First, he can issue directions on any subject to any district level officer; and secondly, he is free to inspect any office in the district. The Collectors are to observe the Government instructions themselves, to get them observed by

1. Report on the General Administration of Madhya Pradesh, 1940-41 to 1945-46, p.5.
2. Ibid, 1946-47 to 1950-51, p. 48.
3. General Administration Department Memo No. 4931-4226-II dated, 21st September, 1954:
4. Ibid, No. 6179-CR-40-1-2 dated, 20th September, 1965.

the subordinate officers and to check their tour diaries, especially of the officers in the Forest and Agriculture Departments.

The orders of the Collector are to be carried out by the District Officers but they can place the matter under orders for the Commissioners' final decision if they strongly consider any of them to be impracticable or wrong. The Commissioners are to decide such matters in consultation with the respective Heads of the Departments. He can also send the doubtful references to the Government for orders.

COLLECTORATE

In view of the non-confirmation of the District, the permanent set-up of the Collectorate has not so far been declared by the Government.

Narsimhapur District falls within the jurisdication of the Commissioner of Jabalpur Division and the Collector of Narsimhapur works under his administrative control. In serveral matters, however, he is also directly linked and is responsible to the Government. At present, the Collector who is from the Indian Administrative Services, is assisted by four Deputy Collectors of Madhya Pradesh Civil Services. Two of them, designated Sub-Divisional Officers, are each incharge of the Sub-Divisions of Narsimhapur and Gadarwara. The third Deputy Collector is working as Treasury Officer at Narsimhapur, while the fourth is incharge of Election, Food, Nazul, etc. The two Deputy Collectors at the District head quarters also look after the day-to-day administration of different sections of the Collectorate. The organisational set-up of the Collectorate may be classiffed into three main groups : (i) Land Revenue, Land Records and other allied matters (ii) Law and Order and (iii) Development.

The business in Collectorate is transacted in the following main branches :—

(1) General (concerned with main heads of the district administration including the work done by the Home Guard Head Clerk),

(2) Treasury,

(3) Excise,

(4) Land Records,

(5) Agriculture, and

(6) Planning and Development.

Each is under the subordinate control of an officer responsible to the Collector.

Revenue Administration

The Collector is the chief revenue officer of the District and he exercises all powers conferred on him by the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code or by any other enactment for the time being in force, etc. The District is divided into two tahsils, Narsimhapur and Gadarwara, each constituting a Sub-Division. Each Sub-Division is headed by a Sub-Divisional Officer, who is also the Sub-Divisional Magistrate. The Sub-Divisional Officers are also Chief Executive Officers of the respective Janapada Sabhas. Each tahsil is headed by a Tahsildar. The Tahsildar at Narsimhapur is assisted by four Naib-Tahsildars while the one at Gadarwara is assisted by three Naib-Tahsildars. The main function of the Tahsildars and the Naib-Tahsildars is to collect land revenue and discharge other duties relating to the administraion of the tahsil. For the purpose of collection of revenue the charges of the Naib-Tahsildars are independent. They also deal with the revenue cases independently. Each tahsil is further sub-divided into Revenue Inspector Circles; each circle being kept in charge of a Revenue Inspector. There are 11 Revenue Inspector Circles in the District. The Revenue Inspector Circles are further sub-divided into PatwariCircles,each under a Patwari. At the village level, land revenue and land records work is carried on by the Patwaris each of whom is in charge of one or more villages grouped into 220 Patwari Circles. The District has 1068 villages as per the report from the Superintendent of Land Records in 1963. The Patwaris and Revenue Inspectors are the key officials of Land Records Department.

At the district level, a Superintendent of Land Records, assisted by two Assistant Superintendents of Land Records, supervises the work of the Revenue Inspectors and Patwaris. The Superintendent of Land Records, Narsimhapur, is an inspecting official and technical advisor to the Collector in matters of Land Records. Within the Department, he is under the technical control of the Deputy Director of Land Records, Bhopal Region, Bhopal, who in his turn works under the supervision of the Director of Land Records, Madhya Pradesh.

Law and Order

The Police Act of 1961 entrusts the Collector, who is also a District Magistrate, with the responsibility of maintaining law and order. He is assisted in this, by the magistracy and police. The magistracy includes the Additional District Magistrates, the Sub.Divisional Magistrates, who are First Class Magistrates and the Tahsildars and Naib Tahsldars, who are Second Class Magistrates. The District, Superintendent of Police, who heads the police organisation of the District keeps the Collector constantly in touch with the law and order situation.

Development Activities

The Collector, as the head of district administration, is made responsible for the successful implementation of the developmental programmes of the district level. He is assisted in this work by a Deputy Collector, who is in charge

of the development section of the Collectorate. The District is divided into six Blocks, viz, Narsimhapur, Kareli, Gotegaon, Sainkheda, Babai, Chichli and Chawarpatha. Each Block is headed by a Block Development Officer[1] who is provided with a team of Extension Officers, drawn from different departments such as Agriculture, Veterinary and Animal Husbandry, Co-operation, Public Health, Panchayats, Industries etc. Further down, there are the village level workers, both males and females, known as Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas respectively each looking after the development work of a group of village. In all, there are 72 village level workers posted in the District.

The nature of schemes included in the various plan projects could be classified into two categories. The schemes of the first order aim at the development as well as the utilisation of man-power resources available in abundance in the rural areas. For such schemes the Government provide both financial and technical assistance, whereas police contribute their labour etc. The sehemes falling under the second category are financed, controlled and implemented by the Government on its initiative.

In order to ensure effective participation of the people at the village level in planning and execution of development projects, Block Development Committees have been constituted for each Block on a uniform pattern throughout the State. Each Committee consists of officials and non-officials, the latter being members of Parliament, Vidhan Sabha, Janapada Sabhas, Gram Panchayats, etc. The Collector or the Sub-Divisional Officer functions as the convenor of the Committee, while the Block Development Officer acts as its Secretary. A non-official from among those present is elected Chairman. The Committee mainly advises on the formulation of working plans and development programmes of the Block, reviews the progress, and promotes people's participation especially in such programmes as are oriented to increased agricultural production.

Treasury

The Collector also controls the District Treasury at Narsimhapur and the Sub-Treasury at Gadarwara. A Senior Deputy Collector is incharge of the District Treasury and is designated as Treasury Officer. The Tahsildar at Gadarwara is functioning as the Sub-Treasury Officer.

Registration

The execution of the Registration Act is also the responsibility of the Collector. The office of the District Registrar is situated at Narsimhapur. In addition, there are two sub-registration offices in the District—one situated at Narsimhapur and the other at Gadarwara. Each is being looked after by a Sub-Registrar.

1. The post of Block Development Officer has been abolished from Ist January, 1966.

The Collector is assigned many other miscellaneous duties and he looks after elections, census, food, settlement of landless families, welfare of backward classes, auction of mines and the collection of revenue from them, helping the Central Government in defence programmes and other development works like river projects, famine relief and flood relief and any other work assigned by the Government. One or the other the Deputy Collectors assists him in the discharge of these functions.

The Colllector is also associated with a number of official and non-official Committees in the District. Notable among the former is the District Advisory Committee, which was formed in every district in 1958. The Collector is the Chairman of this Committee which consists of many non-officials as its members. Presently, it includes the local Members of the Legislative Assembly and Members of the Parliament, the Sarpanchas of panchayats, the President of District Congress Committee etc. A Deputy Collector works as the Secretary of the Committee. Its functions are to advise the Collector on problems purely of local character which affect the interests of general public. It also acts as the District Advisory Committee in respect of various schemes and is also expected to secure public cooperation in the prohibition policy of the Government.

Judiciary

Narsimhapur District is, for judicial purposes, a part of Hoshangabad District. As such, all the judges working in this Dictrict are under the administrative control of the District and Sessions Judge, Hoshangahad.

There is an Additional District and Session Judge at Narasimhapur, who is the higest judicial authority in the District. There is also a Civil Judge (Class I), who is also an Additional District Magistrate (Judicial) working here. Besides, a Civil Judge, discharging the duties of the Firtst Class Magistrate, is posted here.

At Gadarwara there is a link court of a Civil Judge. The Judge presiding over this court goes over to this place from Narsimhapur for about ten days every month. Besides this link-court, there is an Additional Civil Judge functioning here, who is also a First Class Magistrate.

Police

The District Superintendent of Police with head-quarters at Narsimhapur, is the head of the Police Organisation of the District. He is under the immediate control of the Deputy Inspector General of Police, Central Range, Jabalpur.

The subordinate police force of the District consists of two Circle Inspectors, one Reserve Inspector, 19 Sub-Inspectors, five Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 53 Head Constables and 264 Constables. There is also a prosecution branch with a Public Prosecutor and two Assistant Public Prosecutors. The entire staff is primarily meant for maintainance of Law and order in the District. Recording of births and deaths is also done at police stations.

Other departments at the district level with headquarters at Narsimhapur are :—

1. District Educational Officer.
2. Civil Surgeon.
3. Sales Tax Officer.
4. District Panchayat and Social Welfare Officer.
5. Employment Officer.
6. Assistant Engineer, M.P. Electricity Board.
7. Executive Engineer (B&R), Narsimhapur Division.
8. Executive Engineer, Tube Wells Division.
9. District Agricultural Officer.
10. District Live Stock Officer.
11. Divisional Forest Officer.
12. Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies.
13. Fisheries Inspector.
14. Inspector of Weights and Measures.

UNION GOVERNMENT OFFICES

A few offices of the Government of India are located at Narsimhapur. The set-up of each of these offices in brief is given below :—

Central Excise

The office of the Inspector of Central Excise, Narsimhapur Range, with head-quarters at Narsimhapur was established on the Ist April, 1958. The Inspector of Central Excise, Narsimhapur Range, works under the immediate control of the Superintendent, Central Excise, Jabalpur. The Inspector is assisted by two Sub-Inspectors, one posted at Narsimhapur and the other at Chichli. This office is responsible for collection of Union Excise duties within the Narsimhapur District.

Income Tax

The jurisdiction over Narsimhapur District is exercised by the Income Tax Officer (D-Ward) posted at Jabalpur. He is assisted by an Income Tax Inspector and the usual subordinate staff.

There are nearly 700 Income Tax payers in the District and a majority of them are businessmen. The total amount collected every year as income tax comes to nearly Rs. 6 lakhs, which may vary according to the changing circumstances.

Office of the Inspector of Post Offices

The Office of the Inspector of Post Offices, Narsimhapur Sub-Division, was opened on the 28th June, 1961. It exercises jurisdiction over the entire Narsimhapur District as well as the eastern portion of Sohagpur Tahsil of Hoshangabad District.

The Inspector of Post Offices inspects offices in his sub-division and investigates into complaints received from the public.

The Central Railway

The Itarsi-Jabalpur section of the Central Railways passes through the District connecting Salichauka Road, Gadarwara, Bohani, Kareli, Narsimhapur, Karak-Bel, Gotegaon and Bikrampur railway stations. Each of these railway stations are in charge of a Station Master or an Assistant Station Master. They are under the control and supervision of the Divisional Superintendent of Jabalpur Division, Jabalpur.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

The history of the revenue assessment in some of the areas now forming the present District of Narsimhapur could be traced back to the sixteenth Century when Raj-Gond chiefs of Garha were in power, who by 1600 A.D. were restored to semi-independence as tributary chiefs of the Mughal Emperor. "The best evidence of the former existence of such a net-work of subordinate estates is to be found in Abul Fazal's pages. In his statistical account of Garha Sarkar he gives a list of 29 parganas - each separately assessed to revenue and each with an entry showing the quota of horse and foot for which it was responsible; and this is, unquestionably, a list of the subordinate local chiefships existing in Garha-Katanga at the end of the 16th Century."[1] The details of Garha Sarkar were probably written about 1590 A.D or a quarter of a century after Akbar's conquest, and represent the administrative distribution of the Country under the Mughal regime. Akbar did little more than levy tribute from Garha-Katanga, maintaining a sufficient force there to secure collection of the revenue. This would suggest that Todar Mal's system of land revenue settlement was extended to these areas during the reign of Akbar (1542-1605).[2] Under the system of assessment then known as *Zabti* the farmer was given the option of paying in cash or kind. The cash rates were fixed by the Estate Officer, and they were different for different crops. When the season arrived, a staff of officers toured in the villages to ascertain the exact area of land under cultivation with a view to preparing the crop-statement. The area of each crop in each holding having been found out, the *Bitikchi* applied the prescribed rates and calculated the revenue due from the cultivator. It prevailed amongst others in Malwa *Subah* also. Each plot of land was to be charged with a fixed assessment in cash which was determined according to the nature of the crop.[3]

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1. C.jU Wills, The Raj-Gond Maharajas of the Satpura Hills, p. 182.
2. It has been mentioned in Ain-i-Akbari (tr. by H. S. Jarrett and revised by J. N. Sarkar, Calcutta, 1949. pp. 207-211) that the revenue income from the *mahals* of Shahpur and Chauragarh in the Sarkar of Garha in the 'Subha' of Malwa was 350,000 *dams*, while the other contributions amounted to 100 cavalry and 1,000 infantry. The cultivators were prosperous and paid revenue in *Mohurs* and elephants.
3. Ishwari Prasad, A Short History of the Muslim Rule in India, pp. 329-30.

The Maratha administration which succeeded that of the Mughal had even less exalted political ideals. The later years of Maratha administration were characterised by a system of rack-renting restricted only by the absence of opportunity. The concentration of troops and consequently heavy disbursements in the District, went far to counteract the exhaustion which would otherwise have resulted.[1] Their *modus operandi* was simply to inflict as heavy an assessment as possible. The land revenue had been forced up to an unnatural extent by the Marathas, whose income was reduced substantially by the cession of Berar to the Nizam, and Cuttak to the British through the treaty of Deogaon in A.D. 1803. The Marathas endeavoured to recoup this loss by forcing up the revenue of the tract which remained in their hands.[2]

The Saugor-Nerbudda Territories were annexed in A.D. 1818 to the British administration which inherited from the Marathas system under which the village was leased out from year to year to a Patel, who paid the revenue fixed on the village and who was alone responsible for the distribution of the rental burden among the cultivators. The total revenue demand for Narsimhapur District which then excluded trans-Narmada *haveli*, was Rs.6.67 lakhs in 1818, which was the last year of the Maratha administration. Maratha demand represented only the total which they hoped to be able to recover under optimum conditions but was rarely worked upto the early British administrators followed their predecessors in maintaining the total demand at an equally high figure and in effecting the settlement of the villages with lessees, but with this radical difference that whereas the Marathas allowed the revenue to vary from year to year according to the nature of the harvests and the necessities of the Government and left it unadjusted till the close of each year, the British system fixed the demand for the year and left it invariable for a term of years. This term was fixed at five years.

The early British revenue assessments failed based as they were on fallacious assumptions. The Settlement Officers commonly held the opinion that the benefits of peace and security conferred by the British rule would attract capital and population so as to cause a complete revolution in the state of things. They did not realise the effect of a change in economic conditions, *viz*., the great decrease in local expenditure which followed the pacification of the country and disbandment of the troops which under Bhonslas had been quartered in the Narmada Valley. In A.D. 1816 the Marathas drew Rs. 6.57 lakhs from the Narsinghpur District, but their military expenditure in the District amounted to Rs 6 37 lakhs so that nearly whole of the revenue was spent in the District. Under British rule, local

1. Nursingpore Settlement Report, 1866, p. 36.
2. Ibid., 1885-94, p. 29.

expenditure steadily declined till in A.D. 1823 it was under Rs. 2 lakhs. Consequently, assessments had to be gradually reduced during the series of quinquennial assessments.

The earlier settlements were confined to the summary fixation of the *Jama* (revenue) which the Patel was expected to pay, for the lease-hold rights of the village did not rest on any clear legal basis. They were of a summary nature and the demand was fixed on general considerations. The first formal five years' Settlement in Narsimhapur District was made in 1820, under which the total demand was fixed at Rs. 5.56 lakhs. It was made by Lieutenant Montgomerie, and was probably intended to be a mere stop-gap, until more regular proceedings could be instituted. It was not till the end of 1822 that the agricultural classes felt their first real shock, by the withdrawal of the Nerbudda Field Force from the valley which has already been referred to. This was followed by a bad season, and partial measures proving insufficient, a general reduction of 10 per cent was granted in 1822, which enabled the people of the District to tide over their immediate distress. In 1825 at the second Settlement the total demand was reduced to Rs. 4.39 lakhs; while in the two settlements which followed it was gradually to Rs. 4 lakhs.

The difficulties experienced in the earlier Settlements, which were based on the previous Maratha demand, were communicated in detail on the 12th September, 1825 by Assistant Political Agent to the Agent to the Governer-General in Jabalpur.[1]

During the first five years the remissions averaged Rs. 66,000 per year, the second five years' Settlement proved disastrous and heavy remissions had to be effected. The British Officers' ideas were different from those of the Marathas. They regarded the rent-roll as a thing to be regularly worked upto, and not in the light of a more estimate of the maximum amount which might be squeezed out of the District under favourable circumstances. The natural result was that the revenue in full and the assessments based on the Maratha figures were found unworkable.

Heavy remissions, however. carried it through, and considerable reductions were made at the triennial Settlements in 1830 and 1833. This state of affairs was the subject-matter of an adverse comment by R.M. Bird, Member, Sudder Board of Revenue, North West Provinces, who in his Note on the Saugor Nerbudda Territories (1834) observed.[2]

Bird in his enquiry pleaded for a long term settlement on moderate lines for 20 years. His recommendations were adopted and Captain Ousley was

1. Quoted in Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1923-26, p.21.
2. R.M. Bird, Note on the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, p. 3.

entrusted with 20 years' settlement of Narsimhapur District which was completed in 1836. With a considerable reduction of demand from Rs.4.00 lakhs to Rs. 3.47 lakhs enabled the District to recover itself completely.[1] This was the first long term settlement and was simple in procedure. Grant observed on this Settlement. "His report does not go into details regarding the data of his assessments, but it would appear to have been based primarily on the recorded rentals, of which from 60 to 70 per cent were assumed as the Government demand. The measurements, or more strictly speaking the area appraisements effected for this as well as for the previous summary settlement were so rough as to be of little practical use."

During these years the District continued to enjoy the advantages of the lenient assessment of the 20 years' Settlement. Proof of prosperity may be drawn from one single fact that the gross rental increased from Rs. 6,69,667 to Rs. 8,26,924, or at the rate of 24 per cent. Captain Ousley's Settlement was made for 20 years only, but the disturbed conditions arising from the Great Uprising led to the extension of the period of Settlement and the next settlement popularly known as "the 30 Years' Settlement" was not completed until 1864-65. An important result of the 20 Years Settlement was that the idea of non-interference with the ryot's rents became firmly fixed in the minds of the people and the prohibition was held to extend to the landlord. It caused existing inequalities in rent to become stereotyped, and led the ryots to object to readjustment of rents by the malguzars at the Settlement of 1864, under the impression that their rents were only alterable by order of Government. The Settlement Department was not permitted to enhance rents, and it was expressly stated that "rents were to be allowed to adjust themselves."[2]

The subsequent settlement effected by Grant was an outstanding landmark in the revenue settlement history of the District for its special feature of the conferment of proprietary rights embodied in a formal proclamation in June, 1854. The application of the Saharanpur Settlement Rules in the next year limited the demand of the State upon the new proprietors to one-half of the average net assets instead of two-thirds as before. To counter-balance the rights of malguzars it was found necessary to grant protection to tenants who could prove continuous possession. Absolute occupancy and occupancy tenancy rights were thus evolved. These rights included practical immunity from rental enhancement by the malguzar during the period of Settlement.

The Settlement was preceded by a regular cadastral survey, and the measurers who prepared the village maps also made a rough soil classification, four kinds of soils only being recognized, *kabar*, *mund*, *patarua* and *ritua*. An estimate of the 'proper' rental according to the soil of the village and a separate estimate based on the cropping, were made.

1. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1885-94, p. 31.
2. Ibid.

These estimates were compared with the existing 'gross rental' of the villages and where the existing 'gross rental' appeared to be low from these comparisons, a higher figure was taken as the 'available rental'. The home-farm was valued at the same rate while the miscellaneous income was also calculated. The 'real assets' or existing available assets' of the village were estimated from the calculations and the land revenue was then fixed.

The principles of revenue fixation and the methods whereby the soil rates and produce rates were calculated have not been explained in the Report. When the settlement was taken in hand by Charles Grant it was found that the former assessment had been made on an assumed value rate for wheat of Rs. 4 per *mani.* The price by then doubled which gave ground for a rise of 25 per cent. The revised revenue fixed for Narsimhapur District was Rs. 4,21, 700 showing an increase of 27 per cent on the former demand of Rs. 3,31,292. The revised revenue absorbed 54 per cent of the village assets at the time of assessment. The incidence was at the rate of 12.1 annas per cultivated acre. Further, the assets of the malguzars were increased by re-adjustment of rents to the extent of 7 per cent and the revised revenue assessment absorbed 51 per cent of the adjusted assets. The settlement operations cost Rs. 1.61 lakhs.

The assets of the District were estimated by Grant at Rs. 8,26,924, while the figure given in the annexure in De Brett's report was Rs. 8,76,031 detailed as under :

		Rs.
(i)	Total of tenants' rents and *malik-makbuza* payments	6,80,309
(ii)	Rental valuation of home-farm and land held by privileged tenants	1,79,776
(iii)	*Siwai* income or miscellaneous income	15,946
	Total	8,76,031

Out of the total assets of the District estimated at Rs. 8,76,031, the land revenue assessment was fixed at Rs. 4,30,291 or 49 per cent of the estimated assets.

After the new revenue was announced, malguzars and tenants were directed, where there had been an enhancement of revenue, to settle amongst themselves the enhancement of individual rents required to meet the revised revenue demand. This gave rise to confusion and Russell was, therefore,

subsequently appointed to supervise the enhancement of rents. This adjustment produced a rental enhancement of Rs. 51,741 which is included in the total rental demand of Rs. 6,80,309 given above.

It is noteworthy that the revenue was first enhanced and the rents sub sequently adjusted to meet the revised revenue demand, a procedure precisely opposite to the one followed in modern settlements. The term of the Settlement in the bulk of Narsimhapur Tahsil expired in the year 1895, but in most of villages of the Gadarwara Tahsil it expired in 1894.

The Settlement of 1864 was a lenient one and the revenue was collected with ease. At that time, the rich valley was fully cultivated and since then, a number of important changes took place, most of which were due to the opening of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway in 1870. The railway gave the District a ready market for its produce and consequently rail-borne and road-borne trade showed marked advance. The area occupied for cultivation increased by $12\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. The area under cultivation consisting of land actually cropped and new fallows, increased by 17 per cent of the occupied area, 86 per cent was under crops during the years of revision. The prices of agricultural produce rose by 67 per cent. The land assets spontaneously increased from Rs. $8\frac{3}{4}$ lakhs to Rs $12\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs, while the Government revenue remained practically the same. The rent rates of two-thirds of the tenant area remained untouched whilst over the remaining third the proprietors imposed an enhancement of 64 per cent. The largely increased profits of agriculture resulted in a marked rise in the material prosperity of both malguzars and tenants although there was much indebtedness amongst both. On these premises, the Settlement Officer built up strong case for the revision of assessment.

The District was formally brought under settlement by the issue of a notification dated 27th October, 1891. By this time preparatory survey had been completed and attestation and assessment remained to be done. The Settlement was completed in 1895 by De Brett. No steps were taken to keep upto date the village maps prepared at 30 years' Settlement during its currency. As the time for revision approached, it became necessary to undertake an entirely fresh survey. This was effected partly by professional survey parties and partly by Patwaris. The professional surveyors made a preliminary traverse and provided sheets for each village on which they had laid down the position of survey marks placed as near the boundary of village as possible. The Patwaris followed the professional surveyors and with the help of the marks laid down by the latter, plotted the field boundaries and other details with the chain and cross-staff. The method of assessment was that prescribed for the Central Provinces and included the elaborate classification and valuation of soil by relative factors and the determination of rents according to the soil unit system. Only the soil factors are given in the Settlement Report

and neither the existing incidence of rental on soils nor the rates to which they were raised. At the time of Settlement, out of the occupied area, 16 per cent was held by malguzars, 3 per cent by plot proprietors, 78 per cent by tenants and 3 per cent by dependents and servants from the malguzars. The home farms held by malguzars had increased from 96,466 to 1,19,390 acres during the 30 Years' Settlement.

This Settlement represented a very great advance upon previous settlements. At the 30 Years' Settlement, the Settlement Officer was not called upon to fix the rent of tenants. He had merely to determine the sum which could fairly be demanded as revenue in respect of each village or estate. If the enhancement of the revenue necessitated the raising of tenants' rental, this was carried out by the agreement between the malguzars and the tenants and the Settlement Officer acted only as an adviser to them. Now due to creation of protected tanant class, it became necessary for the first time for the Settlement Officer to assess individual payments upon individual holdings. Besides, the rental valuation of home farm and the assessment of *siwai* income were for the first time made the basis for revenue assessment.

The inequalities in incidence between the protected and ordinary tenants were to some extent recognised and moderate enhancements were imposed on the protected classes, accompanied by a good deal of reduction of ordinary rents wherever found to be excessive.

At this Settlement, assets were estimated at Rs. 12,91,626, out of which revenue demand was fixed at Rs. 6,42,615. This assessment absorbed about 50 per cent of the total assets or excluding the payments of plot-proprietors, 49 per cent of the true malguzari assets. The revised revenue gave an increase of Rs. 2,12,324 over the then existing revenue of which Rs. 57,301 was made good to proprietors by the net enhancement of tenants' payment. The revenue rate per acre had been raised from 12 annas in 1864 to 15 annas 3 pies which gave moderate increase of 27 per cent.

The term of the revised settlement was to expire on 30th June, 1910 in Narsimhapur Tahsil and on 30th June, 1911, in case of Gadarwara Tahsil. But it was extended from time to time until it finally had a currency of a little over 30 years. The last extension expired on 30th June, 1925, in Narsimhapur Tahsil and on 30th June, 1926 in Gadarwara Tahsil. The total cost of operations excluding the cost of preliminary traverse survey was Rs. 1,73,509 which worked out at the rate of Rs. 99-4-11 per sq. mile, made up of Rs. 46-9-3 for the cadastral survey and Rs. 52-11-8 for assessment.

The District was formally brought under re-settlement by Government Notification dated 27th October, 1923. Careful enquiries were made

into the condition of tenants which amply revealed the general prosperity of the tenancy class. Tenants to the extent of 83 per cent were found in good to ordinary circumstances, 49 per cent were entirely free from debt and 22 per cent owed less than Rs. 100. Only 16 per cent were in debts aggregating more than Rs. 200 and the total debt alleged amounted to less than 10 per cent of transfer value of the land and the capital invested in the cattle.

The re-settlement operations were carried out by Bourne between October 1923 and April, 1926. A preliminary report regarding the lines on which the resettlement should be conducted was submitted on 15th March, 1922. The usual forecast report followed in June, 1923, as well as the soil classing report and the soil factor report.

In the previous Settlement the vital importance of an accurate soil classification in rental distribution was not fully realised and actually the work of soil classing was entrusted to Patwari and had had been practically completed before the Settlement Officer joined the District. This had naturally resulted in a large number of inconsistencies from group to group which meant a tendency to class all soils at a common level with a consequent overvaluation of the poorer and under-valuation of the better land. As the best land was largely held by the protected classes of tenants whose rents had not altered, and the poorer land by the ordinary classes whose rents had been enhanced, this tendency had the effect of obscuring to some extent the wide difference in the real rental pressure.

In carrying out the revision, Bourne was required to pay particular attention to the two principles of all rental distribution, *viz.*, the accurate classification of the soil and the allotment of comparative factors fixing the relative valuation of each kind of soil.

The new scale of soil and position classes corresponded with the main varieties of soil texture and position affecting the soil values actually found in the District. A thirteen-fold soil classification was adopted comprising *kabar* I, *kabar* II, *mund-kabar*, *mund* I, *mund* II, *domatta* I, *domatta* II, *pataruа* I, *pataruа* II, *sehara*, *ritua*, *bhatua* and *kachhar*.

Irrigated land was classed as *abpashi*. In addition, soils adjoining the village site and benefiting from the manure from the village were classed as *geonra*, while fields adjoining the jungle and damaged by wild animals were classed as *ujarha*.

The total assets of the District were estimated at Rs. 15,57,141, out of which an amount of Rs. 7,73,115 was fixed as Government demand or 50 per cent of the total assets. The total malguzari assets resulting from re-settlement

were valued at Rs. 15,16,576 out of which the malguzari revenue was fixed at Rs. 7,39,339 or 49 per cent of the malguzari assets, the normal fraction of 50 per cent being departed from in cases where *siwai* was important or the assets were insecure or other reasons demanded leniency. Adding the *malik-makbuza* revenue of Rs. 33,776 and allowing for Rs. 8,930 in *muafi* and *ubari* grants, the net realisable revenue from the District increased by Rs. 1.30 lakhs or by 21 per cent. Raising the payments from tenants and *malik-makbuzas* by Rs. 1.75 lakhs, yielded a net gain of over Rs. 44 lakhs to the malguzar as a whole. Home-farm was generally valued at the revised tenancy incidence in each village, with an incidence over the whole District of .99 against 1.00 on tenants. *Siwai* which is not very important accounted for less than 2 per cent of the total assets and was fixed at Rs. 26,703.

In the process of smoothing out the inequalities the increase in payments actually obtained has been 82 per cent on *malik-makbuzus*, 28 per cent on absolute occupancy, and 12 per cent of occupancy tanants. These figures included reductions of excessive rents totalling Rs. 21,021 and fixation on land held without rent or on grain rents of Rs. 18,743.

Since 1864, the all round rent rate rose in the manner shown below :

	Rs.	As.	P.	
At 30 Years' Settlement	1	5	1	
As revised at De Brett's Settlement	1	11	9	i.e., plus 32 per cent
As now revised	1	15	3	i.e., plus 13 per cent

The revised rents and revenue were announced as payable from 1st July, 1925, to 30th June, 1955 in Narsimhapur Tahsil and from 1st July 1926 to 30th June, 1956, in Gadarwara Tahsil. The total expenditure incurred in resettlement amounted to Rs. 260,150. The Table below shows the tahsil-wise revenue demand assessed at the different settlements.

(In Rupees)

Tahsil	Settlement of 1864	Settlement of 1894	Settlement of 1923-26
Narsimhapur	2,19,633	3,37,912	3,95,630
Gadarwara	2,09,893	3,04,703	3,68,555 + 8,930
	4,29,526	6,42,615	7,73,115

+ Includes *muafi* and *ubari* grants.

Although the term of the Settlement of 1923-26 has already expired, no further settlement operations have been undertaken in the District. As a result of this land revenue is being paid at the rates assessed at the last Settlement.

At the time of 30 Years' Settlement (1864) 93 per cent of the villages in the District had been conferred in proprietary right on the old malguzars or *wattandars* and 7 per cent had remained generally with holders of less than 25 years' standing. The malguzars were entitled to a profit of 51 per cent of the village assets until 1947-48 when it was reduced to 25 per cent under the Central Provinces Revision of Land Revenue of Estates Act, 1947 (XXV of 1947).

The proprietor used to hold a part of the village land as his home-farm, but under the law this could not exceed one-fourth of the area of the village. Home-farm land was divided into two classes, *viz*, (i) that which had been continuously cultivated for a specified number of years known as *sir*, this land could be sub-let without the acquisition of tenant right by the lessee but could not be alienated by the owner without permission, (ii) that which had not been cultivated for the period specified and could not be left without tenancy rights accruing to the lessee. This land was termed as *khud-kashta* or self-cultivated.

At the time of Settlement of 1923-26 the area under *sir* and 'other than *sir*' was 98,170 acres and 37,270 acres, respectively. The home-farm of malguzars had increased during inter-settlement period by seven per cent and covered 18 per cent of the total occupied area at later Settlement.

The village forest, waste land and grazing grounds were also the property of the malguzar and for that he was required to give permission to all the inhabitants of the village to graze their cattle in the village grazing grounds, to cut wood for making implements of husbandry and to cut and take firewood without payment of compensation of any kind. These were known as *nistar* rights and were specified in the *wajib-ul-arz* (village administration paper) of each village. Besides this the management of village also rested with the malguzars. This included the maintenance, etc., of threshing floors, barns and grainpits. village roads, paths and the like The malguzar was also required to provide for customary village expenses. The Land Revenue Act enjoined upon the Settlement Officer the responsibility for the preparation of *wajib-ul-arz* embodying all necessary details.

These rights were sometimes sub-divided among co-sharers, the principal being later known as *Sadar Lambardar* (sadar malguzar) and the co-sharers being known as *Lambardars* (malguzars). They were mostly of aboriginal descent. The responsibility for the payment of land revenue for the village

rested on the *Sadar Lambardar* in case the proprietary rights were vested in more than one person and in other cases on the *Lambardar*. He collected rent from the tenants of the village and paid the Government demand.

In the *lambardari* system when the *Lambardar* died his son was to succeed to his post. If the son was a minor, he would manage through an agent appointed by the Deputy Commissioner, until he attained his majority. If the son was considered unfit, a person chosen by the concensus of the shareholders was appointed, to the post by Deputy Commissioner. During the late 1920's, however, some difficulties were noticed in the working of the *lambardari* system. There were many changes among the *Lambardars* and *Lambardar-Gumashtas* owing to death, resignation sale of villages. The death of Raja Vijai Bahadur of Chichli in 1924-25 alone was responsible for 40 such changes. In Hoshangabad District, of which Narsimhapur was a part since 1932, difficulty in appointing *Lambardars* was experienced when an incumbent resigned. With the coming into force of Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950, the *lambardari* system ceased to operate with effect from 31st March, 1951, when all proprietary rights and interests vested in the State.

Muafi **Lands**

Revenue-free estates and patches principally religious endowments were very common in the Narsimhapur District in spite of frequent resumptions. Genuine *oobarees* or lands held at fiixed quit-rent, were unknown except in Chawarpatha Pargana, in which revenue free assignments were left without interference till 1862. The *oobaree* in Narsimhapur was the half assessment which had often been the practice to allow for one life before final resumption on a muafi grant.[1] At the subsequent Settlement a sum of Rs. 10,015 was assigned to private persons and temples. In the year 1902-03 about 28,000 acres consisting of villages or shares of villages and 2,000 acres contained in holdings were held wholly or partially revenue-free, the amount of revenue assigned being Rs. 9,000. The then existing Madanpur estate of 14 villages was granted on half the revenue for two generations. The Barman estate of seven villages was held revenue-free for the support of the temple of Laxmi Narain at Barman. The grant was given by the Marathas and was continued by the British. About 10 other entire villages were held revenue-free for support of different temples, the grants dating from the time of the Mandla Rajas, the Sagar *Subahs* or the Bhonslas.[2]

At the time of Settlement of 1923-26, there were 50 revenue-free grantees spread over an area of 1,113 acres and the valuation of land held rent-free

1. Nursingpore Settlement Report, 1866, p. 90.
2. arsinghpur District Gazetteer, p.190.

from malguzars was of the order of Rs. 29,993. During the course of the preceding Settlement the provisions of section 75 of the Land Revenue Act had not been brought upon the Statue Book, and the Settlement Officer confined himself to recording the existence of a *muafi* wherever the land was found to be at the time held free of revenue against the malguzar. Subsequently, with the enforcement of the provisions of the above section in 1918 a full and careful enquiry was made in all cases during the course of the Settlement, and where a special claim to continue to hold in *muafi* was established, the *muafi* was recognised for the period of setttlement while, in some cases by agreement a part only of the *muafi* was retained. Where a claim could not be established, the land was assessed to land revenue payable to the malguzar. But where *muafis* were resumed special leniency in assessment was shown.[1] These *muafi* grants were discontinued under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemptions Act, 1948 (XXXVII of 1948) empowering the State Government to sanction annual grant of money for the maintenance of religious, charitable or public institutions. Now the total annual expenditure on such grants is Rs. 4,068 which is distributed among 13 religious institutions.

Income from Land Revenue and Special Cesses

The total receipts from land revenue and cesses in the year 1926-27 which was the first year after the Settlement were Rs. 7,50,849 and Rs. 48,763, respectively. During 1941-42 these receipts dropped to Rs. 5,51,535 and Rs. 4,686, respectively. The following Table shows the annual demand and the collection of land revenue from 1947-48 to 1950-51 and from 1956-57 to 1961-62.

(In Rs.)

Year	Demand	Collection Including Collection of Arrears
1947-48	N.A.	11,12,721
1948-49	N.A.	11,27,921
1949-50	N.A.	11,27,922
1950-51	N.A.	13,34,685
1956-57	14,42,114	13,67,616
1957-58	14,45,341	12,44,859
1958-59	14,46,227	15,44,460
1959-60	14,45,334	14,76,938
1960-61	14,45,785	14,69,854
1961-62	14,49,599	14,14,245

1. Narsinghpur Settlement Report. 1923-26, pp. 66 and 88.

After the abolition of malguzari, for collecting land revenue and other Government dues, Patels have been appointed by election in all villages and they are paid a commission by Government for this work. The Table below shows the amount of commission paid to the Patels in the District during the period from 1956-57 to 1964-65.

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1956-57	1,23,492
1957-58	1,21,509
1958-59	1,08,298
1959-60	86,464
1960-61	75,534
1961-62	78,678
1962-63	74,695
1963-64	75,672
1964-65	76,969

The Patels also function as mukaddams of their villages. As an experimental measure the responsibility of collection of land revenue, etc., has also been entrusted to 20 Gram Panchayats in the District.

The land revenue is now recovered in two instalments in the District, i.e., the first instalment falls due on 15th January and the second on the Ist May. A month after these dates, a defaulter's list is prepared by the Patwari and is sent to the Tahsildar for recovery.

Some cesses on land revenue are levied by the Government. The demand on account of the road, school and postal cesses in 1902-03 was Rs. 35,000; for additional rates Rs. 13,000 and for Patwari cess Rs. 22,000. The Patwari cess, which was introduced in 1892-93, under the Land Revenue Act of 1881, provided for the pay of the Patwaris and their supervising officers. The Patwari cess was calculated at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on the land revenue, the education cess at 2 per cent, the road cess at 3 per cent, the postal cess at $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent and additional rate at 2 per cent. The cesses thus amounted to $11\frac{3}{4}$ per cent of the land revenue or nearly 6 per cent of the assets. The demand for land revenue and cesses in 1902-03 was Rs. 6.97 lakhs. The tenants also had to pay three pies per rupee of rental to the Patwari and from three pies to one anna per rupee to the village Kotwar.[1]

The additional rate levied under Act X of 1878, was abolished with effect from 1st April 1905. The proceeds of the road, school and post-office

· Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 188.

cesses were used within the Province to supplement the grants for those branches of expenditure made from Imperial revenues. The Patwari cess was abolished in 1906 when the Patwaries started getting regular pay from the State. The position regarding cesses underwent a change in 1920 when under the Central Provinces Local Self Government Act, 1920 (IV of 1920) only a cess for maintenance of schools, roads and for general purposes was levied in the District. This was calculated at 6¼ per cent on the land revenue and its proceeds were paid to the District Council, Narsimhapur. Another change took place in 1946 when a Panchayat cess was introduced under the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act, 1946 (I of 1947). This cess was payable at the rate of 6 pies per rupee on land revenue or rental and the proceeds were paid to the Gram Panchayats. Subsequently, when District Councils were replaced by Janapada Sabhas in 1948, a Janapada cess was imposed under the Central Provinces and Berar Local Government Act, 1948 (XXXVIII of 1948). This cess was calculated at 30 pies per rupee and the proceeds were payable to the Janapada Sabha concerned. Now under the Madhya Pradesh Panchayats Act of 1960, a cess at the rate of 10 paise per rupee is levied only at the panchayat level. The following Table exhibits the annual demand and collection of cesses in the District during the period 1956-57 to 1961-62.

(In Rs.)

Year	Demand	Collection Including Collection of Arrears
1956-57	1,34,641	1,33,032
1957-58	1,37,803	1,30,746
1958-59	1,37,988	1,34,405
1959-60	1,38,095	1,38,575
1960-61	1,80,218	1,79,227
1961-62	2,27,396	2,53,120

Siwai Income

Siwai, manorial or miscellaneous income was also taken into consideration while computing the total assets for purposes of land revenue assessment. This was derived from various sources, chiefly from sale of wood, grass, *mahua* and other forest produce. The lease of tanks and sale of mangoes also brought in a little, but the malguzari forest constituted the principal source of income. At 30 Years' Settlement the value of grass in the village was included in the *siwai* income, but it was excluded from consideration at the subsequent Settlement, when grown for the villagers' cattle only. The income from miscellaneous sources fell at the rate of 10 pies per acre on malguzari jungle. At Bourne's Settlement, the total assessed valuation of *siwai* income excluding *mahua* and

lac amounted to Rs. 14,303 on 172,156 acres of tree forest. The income from *mahua* and lac which occur principally in the two jungle groups to the south and in the sandy Babai-Siregaon group, was valued at Rs. 12,400 in all.

The Table below shows in comparative form the valuation of *siwai* income at the three settlements :

30 Years' Settlement	Rs. 15,947
De Brett's Settlement	Rs. 14,339
Bourne's Settlement	Rs. 26,703

Relations Between Landlord and Tenant

Under the Maratha revenue system, villages were let out to the highest bidder, and any rights or considerations which the village headmen might have enjoyed in the past were almost entirely effaced. No legal status was given to tenants, and the older cultivators were protected only by the custom that, so long as annual rent demanded was paid, their tenure was hereditary and continuous.

No inconvenience from this state of affairs was felt in practice as the people scarcely realized the possibility of their having any rights as against their rulers. This may suggest that certain degree of occupancy rights existed. Bird in his report emphasised,[1] "The next step is to introduce leases of sufficient length, to give the renters an interest in improving their lands by the outlay of capital, and to induce them to abstain from wasting the powers of the soil by incessant overcropping and to restore these powers by irrigation, manure and fallow."

It fell to the lot of Grant to implement the Government policy of creation of proprietary rights at his regular 30 Years' Settlement of 1864.

The old Maratha leases generally contained a stipulation binding the lessee to assist the *ryots* and keep them contented. In the early days of British rule the policy was to disallow altogether enhancements by the lessees. The *ryot's* rent was fixed as completely as the revenue of the village. The creation of malguzars with proprietary rights revolutionized the land-holders customary position and relations with the Government on the one hand and with the cultivators on the other, subject only to the payment of Government revenue demand, put the cultivators holding lands from them into their hands and necessitated the prescription of the rights of the *ryots* in the interest of the latter. Malguzars were apprehensive of the accurual of occupancy right to cultivators. So care had to be taken to protect the cultivators according to the

1. R.M. Bird, Op. Cit., p. 4.

interest held by them in the land. In pursuance of this policy a series of different tenancy tenures came into being.

Some peculiar features of the tenant landlord relationship in Narsimhapur District are available in Fuller's report, 'Review of the Progress of the Central Provinces During the last 30 Years' (1892), which states "the malguzars have been systematically levying from their tenants the first rent instalment several weeks before it was one or the crops were harvested, so that *ryots* without savings have been compelled to provide it with borrowed money. Settlement Officers are constantly bringing to notice cases in which the *ryots* have by loan transaction been so completely drawn into the power of the malguzars that they annually surrender the whole of their crops, looking indeed for their profit to the surreptitious concealment of part of the produce before settling days". The Deputy Commissioner of Narsimhapur while accounting for the growth of litigation between landlord and tenant as early as 1872-73 observed,[1] "there is this also to account for the growth of litigation. The cultivator indebted on the one hand to the Mahajan for seed-grain and perhaps money, and on the other to the Malguzar for his rent, is pressed as the crops are out for payment by both; and the Malguzar finding his chances of getting his rent decrease in proportion to the tenacity of the Mahajan's dunnings, rushes into Court for a decree on which he may realise while there is property available."

Malguzars were also not free from the burden of debt. This resulted in irregular payment of revenue instalments. The indebtedness of which this was a sign was, however, not due to the heaviness of the assessment, but to the improvidence of the malguzars, who borrowed money at the heavy rate of interest demanded on bonds payable in few months and never thought of paying even after realising their rents from the tenants.[2] Besides, malguzars were enhancing the demand, not only against the absolute occupancy *ryots*, but also *mailk-makbuzas* and *ubaridars*[3] and this enhanced demand was conceded through sheer ignorance. In this context although the relations between landlords and tenants were outwardly cordial, the growing enlightenment of the latter and their consequent awakening from their traditional outlook of patient fatalism led to the increasing assertion from time to time, of their rights against the privileged position of their landlords. Moreover, the rules which were issued under section 7 of the Tenancy Act, 1883, were not known to tenants for long because the malguzars not only realised the *kharif* rent instalments long before the *kharif* produce could be sold, but were realising on account

1. C. P Land Revenue Administration Report, 1872-73, Chief Commissioner's Review, p 19.
2. Ibid., 1875-76, p. 22.
3. Ibid., 1876-77, p.27.

of the *kharif* a much larger proportion of the annual rental than that of the revenue payable by them to Government, with the result that the tenants had to borrow money in order to pay their *kharif* rent, and this was said to be responsible for much of the prevailing indebtedness amongst the cultivators. Moreover, there were some landlords who were dilatory in collecting rents generally through mistaken kindness but often so as to let debts and interests accumulate.[1] By the close of the 19th Century, landlords were becoming more alive to the loss which they anticipated by the growth of occupancy rights.

In the absence of reference to legislative enactments the rights of proprietors and tenants rested only on executive instructions issued from time to time, but the necessity of a statutory law in this behalf was soon felt. In March, 1864, the Bengal Act X of 1859, (under section 6 of which a *ryot* who cultivated or hold land for a peried of 12 years gained a right of occupancy in that land) extended to the Central Provinces, was the first step towards dealing with cases regarding tenant right.[2] In paragraph 2 thereof the intention to confer proprietary right was indicated and para 10 referred to the origin of *malik-makbuzas* or plot-holders, who in certain contingencies were to be recorded proprietors and to pay their *jama* direct to Government. This Act was adopted only because some sort of legislation was felt necessary, but it was neither well adopted for the purpose of protecting tenants' rights indeed had its extension to the Central Provinces been really intended to fulfil that purpose. Instructions for the preparation of bills to meet these wants were issued in 1873, and the Land Revenue Bill and Tenancy Bill were brought before the Governor-General's Legislative Council with a view to providing for the assessment and collection of the land revenue and to complete the scheme of revenue administration by regulating the relations of landlords to tenants, respectively. The Tenancy Bill was brought forward in the Imperial Council in May, 1880, but it became law in 1883. Sir C. Ilbert while moving the Bill in the Council observed as under.[3]

"We found a body of cultivators paying revenue to the State through their village headmen ..... we converted the headmen into proprietors or landlords, the cultivators into their tenants, and the payments made by the cultivators into rent ... ... But we always recognised the imperfect, provisional and transitory nature of the arrangements thus made .... and as to the principles of legislation, it is clear that we must not allow what was intended to be a boon to the immediate revenue payers to be a curse to those from whom

1. Ibid., 1934-35, p. 18.
2. J. F. Dyer, Introduction to the Land Revenue and Settlement System of the Central Provinces, p. 89.
3. Ibid., p. 92-93.

the revenue is ultimately derived. In giving the proprietary right to one class the Government neither intended nor had a right to injure the status of another and much larger class; and if it is found that the change which we have introduced has injured that status, we are not only justified in devising, but bound to devise, measures for remedying that evil. Our object, then, should be to protect the tenant, so far as it is practicable to protect him by legislation, and the only question is what form that protection should take."

The resultant Tenancy Act of 1883 which came into effect on 1st Jannary, 1884, for the first time defined the rights and liabilities of the existing classes of tenants, the absolute occupancy tenants, the (conditional) occupancy tenants, and the class previously known as tenants-at-will but converted by the Act into ordinary tenants. It added a further class that of sub-tenants. Important questions of the transfer of holdings, enhancement of rent, ejectment of tenants, and acquisition of tenant rights and improvements in holdings were dealt with. The Act had the same object as the Tenancy Acts of Bengal and Northern India, viz., the protection of cultivators but at the same time it did not recognise the full proprietary rights of the malguzar. The Settlement Officer was there to intervene and make arrangement between the landlord and his tenant. Further, the Act invested the ordinary tenants with a defined status and protection from arbitrary ejectment.

The rent of an ordinary tenant was left to be fixed between him and his landlord, but if he refused to accept an enhancement and the landlord had recourse to revenue officer, the increased rent fixed by the latter could not be again raised within seven years.[1]

At first the 12 year rule was applied but later on it was given up in favour of an arrangement which allowed purchase of occupancy rights at two-and-half times the annual rental. This in its turn was superseded by another rule framed in 1920, which recognised two classes of occupancy tenants, both having transferable rights subject to certain condition. For ordinary tenants, the Tenancy Act of 1883 entitled them for claiming compensation for disturbance and were protected from ejectment for nonacceptance of rental enhancement until this compensation was paid. Further experience of the working of the Act since its amendment in 1889 showed the necessity for amendment in some matters of importance, notably in the matter of the fixation of tenants' rent. The Acts of 1883 and 1889 were repealed and a new Act was passed in 1898 consolidating and amending the Rent Act. It authorised among others, Settlement Officer to fix rent. It provided that the rent of ordinary tenants could be fixed for seven years as also the transfer of their right by occupancy

1. Ibid. p.93.

and ordinary tenants. The Settlement Officer could now reduce the rents of ordinary tenants which he deemed excessive. A clause (II-a) had been added in the *wajib-ul-arz* which bound the malguzars in their dealing with their *ryots* and abide by the provisions of the Tenancy Act. It was included to enable the Government to interpose on the executive side, in cases of oppression under section 123 of the Land Revenue Act, instead of having to stand aside until the *ryots* pluck up enough courage to put the malguzars into court.[1] The Tenancy Act of 1898, with small amendments made in the following year and in 1917, remained in force until 1920, when the tenancy law was completely re-enacted and known as the Central Provinces Tenancy Act (I of 1920). The Act recognised three classes of tenants, namely :

(i) Absolute occupancy tenants,
(ii) Occupancy tenants, and
(iii) Sub-tenants.

It abolished the class of ordinary tenants and all such tenants were converted into occupancy tenants. As noted already, a series of rights were recognized in land with a view to protecting the interest of land-holders. They are described in paras that follow :

(i) Land Held by Plot-Proprietors (*malik-makbuzas*)

Captain Sleeman writing in 1824, observed that,[2] "the want of principles in former Governments, and the abuses of the local administration had left the right of occupancy in the cultivators entirely nugatory if it had ever been regarded, and that the question of a right of occupancy or of property may be entirely disregarded, certainly without injury or disadvantage to a single individual in the district of Narsingpoor". According to his ruling, old cultivators, who had been in uninterrupted possession of their holdings dating from 1840, were given full proprietary rights with other proprietary privileges in their holdings; this class came to be known as *malik-makbuzas*. Later, after the issue of circular No. 17 dated 26th September, 1856 from the Sadar Board of Revenue, the period of uninterrupted possession was fixed at 12 years, and became the rule of the courts. During 30 Years' Settlement not many tenants were declared proprietors of their plots (*malik-makbuzas*).

(ii) Absolute Occupancy Tenancy Right

The class of *ryots* whose record of occupancy right was provisional was decided, in the orders incorporated in the Settlement Code of 1863, to be narrowed as much as possible and the occupancy right of other classess of *ryots* were to be recorded as absolute. It is in these orders that the technical

1. Narsinghpur Settlement Report, 1885-94, pp. 50-51.
2. Ibid., 1866, p.91.

description of absolute occupancy was first embodied.[1] This class was a relic of the cultivators when the enquiry at the 30 Years' Settlement found to have been long established and deserving of protection. Absolute occupancy tenants had full protection for the term of Settlement so long as the rent specified in the settlement records was paid. Besides, he had power to transfer his holding subject to the landlord's right of pre-emption.[2]

(III) Occupancy Tenancy Right

The Act of 1883 provided that the rent of an occupancy tenant was to be fixed by the Settlement Officer and could not thereafter be enhanced for 10 years. The power of the occupancy tenant to transfer his holding to any person other than one who would be an heir or was a co-sharer, was subject to the landlord's consent.[3] Such a tenant was protected from enhancement under certain conditions and was secure from ejectment so long as he paid his rent.

(iv) Ordinary Tenancy Right

The Settlement of 1864, recorded this class of tenants as "tenants-at-will" who were later converted into ordinary tenants. His rent was to be fixed by consent between him and the malguzar. Malguzar was permitted to enhance the rent of such a tenant but if he refused to accept an enhancement and malguzar had recourse to Revenue Officer the inreased rent fixed by the latter would not be again raised within seven years. He was liable to be ousted only in execution of a decree for arrears of rent or for ejectment on account of a breach of the conditions of the tenure.

The occupied area held in each of the above tenures in the District at the Settlements of 1895-96 and 1923-26 is shown below :

(In Acres)

Tenure	Settlement of 1895-96	1923-26
(i) *Malik-makbuzas*	19,303	22,406
(ii) Absolute occupancy tenants	1,58,934	1,35,559
(iii) Occupancy tenants	2,15,948	4,41,698
(iv) Ordinary tenants	1,85,983	Abolished

Apart from the general enactments mentioned above, a special legislation known as the Central Provinces Land Alionation Act, 1916, was put on the

1. J. F. Dyer, Op. Cit., p. 49.
2. Ibid., p 93.
3. Ibid.

statute book. Its intention was the protection of aboriginal land-owners and safeguarding against permanent alienations of agricultural land by an aboriginal proprietor to non-aboriginal.

No significant change took place until the Congress Ministry in the Central Provinces, in pursuance of the recommendations made by the Revenue Committee appointed earlier by the Government to consolidate the existing land revenue and tenancy laws of the Province, introduced a number of amendments in the existing Tenancy Act for providing better rights of transfer and mortgage to the tenants. It was provided that tenants if habitually let out lands, whether held by *malik-makbuza*, by malguzars as *sir*, or by cultivators under occupancy rights, could become occupancy tenants thereof. Besides, a 12½ per cent reduction of rents was given in small holdings during 1937-38. Government, under one of the amendments, was empowered to declare absolute occupancy tenants and occupancy tenants as *malik-makbuza* on payment to the landlord of an amount equal to 10 and 12½ times the rent, respectively, of the holding. Further, if *sir* or *khud-kasht* lands were leased as one holding on or after the 1st November, 1939, the lessee could acquire the same right in *sir* land as he would in the *khud-kasht* land and the *sir* right in such land was extinguished.

After the assumption of office by the Congress Ministry in 1946, the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly passed a resolution on September 3, 1946 for elimination of intermediaries between the State and the tiller. In pursuance of this resolution a Bill was introduced in the Assembly on October 11,1949. The Bill was passed on April 5, 1950, and received the assent of the President on January 22, 1951 and published as Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estate, Mahals, Alienated lands) Act, 1950 (I of 1951). While the Bill was awaiting the assent of the President, an interim legislative measure known as the Madhya Pradesh Agricultural Raiyats and Tenants (Acquisition of Privileges) Act, 1950 (XVIII of 1950) was enforced in the same year for facilitating the abolition of proprietary rights, protection of tenants from ejectment, etc. It provided for the conferral of plot-proprietorship (*malik-makbuza*) right on payment of a prescribed premium.

The Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950, came into force from the 31st March, 1951. In pursuance of section 3 of the Act a notification was issued by Government under which all proprietary rights in estates and *mahals* vested in the State Government on the 1st April, 1951, and the various categories of intermediaries throughout the State of Madhya Pradesh were eliminated. Except home-farm land, private wells and tanks and occupied land held by proprietors and tenants, all rights and title and interest hitherto vesting in the proprietor vested in the State Government. The out-going proprietors were, however, allowed to retain their home-farm lands in *malik-*

makbuza rights. For the loss of proprietary rights, the proprietors were entitled to compensation in accordance with the scales prescribed in the Act. Moreover, the petty proprietors were entitled to rehabilitaion grant immediately and all secured debts and liabilities due by the out-going proprietors, except the excluded debts, were to be scaled down by the Claims Officer to be appointed under the Act. A special department under the name of Land Reforms Department was constituted in the State for implementing various provisions of the Act. The revenue administration of the village was taken over by the Patwari in the beginning but, subsequently Patels were appointed through election for this purpose. As the District was not a separate revenue district till November, 1956, all the operations under the Act were carried out by the Deputy Commissioner of Land Reforms in Hoshangabad District.

Consequent upon the abolition of proprietary rights all cultivators, other than sub-tenants, became the tenants of the State and the ex-proprietors became *malik-makbuzas* of the Land under their personal cultivation. Persons holding land other than *sir* land from the proprietor on favourable terms for services rendered by them were declared to be occupancy tenants of the State. The tenants were further given facilities to acquire plot proprietary rights in the lands held by them on payment of a nominal premium.

The abolition of malguzari system was followed by the simplification of the then existing multiple tenures. The Land Revenue Code 1954, consolidating all land Laws of the State was enacted and brought into force from the 1st October, 1955. It recognized only two categories of land-holders (i) *bhumi-swami* and (ii) *bhumidhari*. All *malik-makbuza* and absolute occupancy tenants were made *bhumiswami* or full proprietors of land; while the occupancy tenants were given *bhumidhari* right which was almost equivalent to a proprietary right except that a *bhumidhari* could not transfer his right in his holding to secure payment of or effect the right of the State Government to sell such right for the recovery of an advance made to him nor could such interest be attached or sold in execution of any decree or order. But a *bhumidhari* had the option to acquire *bhumiswami* rights by paying three times the land revenue to the State Government. Through the enactment of Land Revenue Code 1954, the meaning of "habitual sub-letting" was further modified by substituting a lesser period of three years in any consecutive period of five years in place of 7 and 10 years as before. An occupancy tenant of *bhumiswami* and a *bhumidhari* could acquire ownership right on payment of premium at ten and seven times the rent, respectively.

In the year 1956-57 an area of 275,693 acres with land revenue of Rs. 5,95,450 was held by *bumiswamis* and 4,78,485 acres with land revenue of Rs. 8,48,740 by *bhumidharis*. The position of land tenures and tenancy reforms was again reviewed after the new State was constituted which resulted

in the enactment of a unified Land Revenue Code, 1959 (no. 20 of 1959). The new unified Code provides for only one class of land-holders to be known as *bhumiswami*. Thus it brings into existence the peasant proprietorship. A *bhumiswami* shall have rights of transfer unless at least five acres of irrigated or ten acres of unirrigated land is left with him and shall also have a right to mortgage his land both by simple or usufructuary mortgage. A *bhumiswami* of land held for the purpose of agriculture is entitled to make any improvement on it for the better cultivation of the land or for its more convenient use. The Code also protects the rights of sub-tenants, who are given the status of occupancy tenants with all rights and liabilities imposed upon an occupancy tenant. In the year 1959-60, an area of 7,56,518 acres with land revenue of Rs. 14,44,015 was held in *bhumiswami* tenure after the enforcement of the Code. An occupancy, tenant, can acquire *bhumiswami* rights by paying 15 times the land revenue to be paid in five equal instalments. With a view to protecting occupancy tenant from being rack-rented, it has been provided that maximum rent payable by him shall not exceed four times the land revenue in case of irrigated land, three times the land revenue in case of *bandha* land and double the land revenue in other cases. The tenancy of an occupancy tenant in his holding shall be liable to termination by an order of the Sub-Divisional officer on the ground of his failing to pay his rent on or before the due date, using land other than for agriculture, transferring his interest in the land in contravention of section 195 or doing anything to destroy or permanently injure the land. No sub-letting or leasing of land is now permitted except in very emergent cases once in three years or by certain classes of persons such as widows, unmarried women, minors, etc.

Nistar and Grazing Rights

As indicated earlier in this Chapter that formerly the *nistar* and grazing rights were regulated by the malguzars in accordance with the customs and the rules recorded in the *wajib-ul-arz* or village administration papers. Moreover, the landlords later established a practice to take *begar* (free labour) from the tenants. It was also found that *begar* was rendered by the tenants and claimed by the malguzar on the ground that those who rendered it were permitted to remove jungle produce for sale. This led the Government to make a suitable provision in the Central Provinces Tenancy Act in 1937-38, under which landlords could be penalised for taking *begar*. This provision led to the curtailment by landlords of some of the privileges and concessions previously enjoyed by tenants but not legally established. There were a few cases of disputes on account of scramble for irrigation facilities and exercise of *nistar* and grazing rights in the District. Malguzars tried to create obstacles by ruthless exploitation of forests and denial of *nistari* rights to the people. This eventually led the Government after Independence in 1947 to the enactment of the Central Provinces Grazing and Nistar Act, 1948 (XXII of 1948) which

provided for free grazing of the cattle of the agriculturists and a prescribed number of cattle of non-agriculturists in the grazing areas of all estates in the Central Provinces and for right of *nistar* to the prescribed extent in the *banjar*, and also abolished any tax that may be in vogue for the collection of *mahua* flowers. Following the abolition of malguzari system administration of *nistar* also devolved upon the State Government. Subsequently. with a view to settling the grazing and *nistar* problems systematically, the Government appointed a special staff consisting of Nistar Officers (of the rank of Deputy Collectors), Assistant Superintendent Land Reforms and other supporting staff in each tahsil. Nistar enquiries were conducted during 1953-56, and *wajib-ul-arz* of each village was revised after settling disputed problems of rights of *nistar* and grazing. Final reports separately for Narsimhapur and Gadarwara Tahsils were published in 1957. Work of finalizing *nistar patrak* and *wajib-ul-arz* was completed during the year 1960-61.

Bhoodan

The *Bhoodan Yagna* or land-gift movement was initiated in the country in 1951 by Acharya Vinoba Bhave to solve the problem of landless labourers. It is a unique and novel experiment in revolutionising the distribution of land through goodwill, persuasion and co-operation. In old Madhya Pradesh a legislation known as the Madhya Pradesh Bhoodan Yagna Act 1953 (XV of 1953) was enacted to facilitate the activities of the Bhoodan Yagna Board. Now the headquarters of the Board for Mahakoshal region is located at Narsimhapur. Till the end of 31st March 1965 an area of 5,122 acres was received by the Board in Narsimhapur District out of which 3,036 acres has been distributed among landless labourers.

ADMINISTRATION OF OTHER SOURCES OF REVENUE

The enactment of the Charter Act, 1883 was an important event in the financial history of India as it vastly changed the character of the Government and brought about a highly centralised and imperialistic administration. Thereafter, a series of revisions were made till the enactment of the Government of India Act, 1919, based on the recommendations by Montague and Chelmsford. The revenues of India were classified into 'Indian', 'Provincial' and 'Divided' heads until 1920, when following the introduction of Montague-Chelmsford Reforms, the 'Divided' revenue heads were abolished and a complete separation took place between the Central and Provincial revenues. Since the adoption of "Devolution Rules" two types of revenues, namely, Central and Provincial (now State) have been current in the Country. The important items of Central revenues are Union Excise Duties, Income Tax and Estate Duty. Details about these revenues, as regards Narsimhapur District, are given below :

Union Excise Duties

The main excisable commodities in the District are unmanufactured tobacco, copper and copper alloy products and unprocessed vegetable non-essential oil. An Inspector of Central Excise is posted at Narsimhapur for the collection of these duties and is controlled by the Superintendent of Central Excise, Jabalpur Circle, Jabalpur. Narsimhapur Range covering the Narsimhapur District came into existence from 1st April, 1958.

Tobacco warehouses are located at Gadarwara, Narsimhapur, Kareli and Tendukheda. The first warehouse yields the major portion of the revenue. There are three factories at village Chichli which are handling copper and copper alloys. The annual receipts of Central Excise in the District from 1957-58 to 1962-63 are given below :

Commodity	Years	Revenue (Rs.)
Unmanufactured tobacco	1957-58	4,21,142
	1958-59	4,63,597
	1959-60	4,67,026
	1960-61	5,15,615
	1961-62	4,61,808
	1962-63	5,45,342
V.N.E. Oil	1958-59	378
	1959-60	3,396
	1960-61	2,755
	1961-62	2,539
	1962-63	1,417
Copper and copper alloys	1961-62	47,210
	1962-63	41,259

In previous years these commodities were not dutiable.

Income Tax and Estate Duty

The Income Tax was levied for the first time in Central Provinces as far back as 1861-62. It was imposed for a period of five years only and was abolished in 1865-66. In the year 1869, the Government of India again levied the tax on all incomes, including the agricultural income, at the general rate of one per cent, but to be again abolished in 1873-74 . The Income Tax was again revised in 1887-88 and became a permanent feature of the taxation system.

It is only after the enactment of Income Tax Act, 1922 that a separate administrative machinery for the assessment and collection of Income Tax was created as till then its execution rested with the Revenue Department of the Provinces. At present the collection of Income Tax in Narsimhapur District is in charge of the Income Tax Officer, Jabalpur Circle, Jabalpur. The Circle comprises the districts of Jabalpur and Narsimhapur. The assessment and collection of Wealth Tax, Gift Tax and Expenditure Tax in the District are also controlled by the Income Tax Officer, Jabalpur Circle, Jabalpur. The administration of Estate Duty was till 1954-55, with the Income Tax Officer. Thereafter, an Assistant Controller of Estate Duty was appointed with his headquarters at Nagpur and this work entrusted to him.

The following Table exhibits the receipts from Income Tax and Estate Duty from the year 1956-57 to 1964-65.

Year	Income Tax (Rs.)	Estate Duty (Rs.)
1956-57	1,35,924	—
1957-58	1,65,064	—
1958-59	1,12,482	—
1959-60	1,10,357	—
1960-61	1,10,632	232
1961-62	1,03,851	156
1962-63	3,18,079	10,000
1963-64	...	800
1964-65	...	39

Important sources of State revenues in addition to land revenue are forests, sales tax, stamps, taxes on motor vehicles and registration. The following paragraphs give a brief account of these items of taxation and the receipts from them.

Forests

The revenue from forests is principally derived from timber and other produce removed by Government and purchasers and from other miscellaneous sources like cattle grazing. The annual income from forests in the District for some recent years is given below :

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1959-60	1,322,786
1960-61	1,301,203
1961-62	1,007,654
1962-63 (Upto 31.11.62)	389,071

Sales Tax

The old Madhya Pradesh levied Sales Tax from the 1st June,1947,under the Central Provinces and Berar Sales Tax Act, 1947 (XXI of 1947). In new Madhya Pradesh, this Act has been replaced by the Madhya Pradesh General Sales Tax Act, 1958 (II of 1959), which is in force since 1st April, 1959. It is administered by the Sales Tax Officer, Narsimhapur. The annual receipts from this item in Narsimhapur District from 1956-57 onwards are shown below :

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1957-58	4,20,774
1958-59	2,56,086
1959-60	3,60,294
1960-61	3,59,903
1961-62	4,28,798
1962-63	4,98,799

A sudden fall in the receipts of Sales Tax during 1958-59 as compared to 1957-58, was on account of the fact that since 13th December, 1957 the commodities like cloth, tobacco (including its products like *bidi*, cigarettes, etc.,) and sugar have been exempted from the levy of Sales Tax. Thereafter, with the introduction of first point taxation, the receipts were on the increase. Besides, there were separate receipts under Central Sales Tax Act and taxation of motor spirit. They came into force during 1959-60.

The annual receipts from 1959-60, onwards are shown below :

Year	Receipts under Central Sales Tax Act (*from 1-7-1959*)	Receipts under Motor Spirit and Lubricant Taxation Act (from 1-4-1969)
	(Rs.)	(Rs.)
1959-60	14,358	35,318
1960-61	19,022	50,012
1961-62	45,365	31,832
1962-63	46,313	13,862

Stamps

The Stamp Act (Act X of 1862) came into force in Central Provinces on 1st June, 1862. The income from this head is from sales of stamps of various denominations, both judicial and non-judicial. The following Table shows annual receipts from 1956-57 onwards.

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1958-59	2,26,156
1959-60	2,99,200
1960-61	2,96,456

Taxes on Motor Vehicles

The income under this head is derived from the registration of motor vehicles, issue of licenses to drivers, conductors, etc., which are levied under the Motor Vehicles Taxation Act and is administered by the Transport Department. The following Table gives the annual receipts from the taxes on motor vehicles in the District from 1956-57 to 1962-63 :

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1956-57	13,556
1957-58	27,655
1958-59	29,093
1959-60	12,129
1960-61	34,066
1961-62	59,415
1962-63	63,223

Registration

The annual income under this head is derived from registration fee, copying fee, etc. At the commencement of the decade 1891-1901, the number of documents registered annually was from 2,500 to 3,000 and the receipts were about Rs. 9,000. In the years upto 1904, the number of documents had fallen to about 1,000 and the annual receipts to about Rs. 5,000. Such receipts during 1938-39, went up to Rs. 23,723 and again decreased to Rs. 17,797 in 1941-42. The figures of annual receipts in recent years are shown below :

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1956-57	54,088
1957-58	73,304
1958-59	57,163
1959-60	71,106
1960-61	72,240
1961-62	78,497
1962-63	65,503
1963-64	64,104
1964-65	63,276

CHAPTER XII

LAW AND ORDER AND JUSTICE

History will perhaps reveal that a systematic administration of Law and Justice was something yet to take shape when the present revenue District of Narsimhapur came under the British in 1818. Immediately before the advent of the British the District was under the Marathas. Neither a special system of courts nor written law existed under them. Besides the Royal Court, the *Kamavisdar* and *Patels* dispensed justice. *Jagirdars* also exercised judicial powers within their areas. The *Kamavisdars* either delivered the judgements themselves or called upon the Panchayats to decide cases. The *Patels* were not empowered to decide civil cases themselves. These could only be decided by a Panchayat which was composed of respected persons of the village. A *Mahajan* elected by the *Patel* and public of a village decided certain types of cases, while the chiefs of some castes called *Sethia* decided some disputes arising within their castes. There was no well-defined procedure for the conduct of business of Gram Panchayats. Their judicial proceedings were also not recorded, but the proceedings of Panchayats called by royal officials were reduced to writing and were submitted to them for approval. These decisions were appealable before the ruler, *Patels* could impose fines in minor criminal cases but all important cases were heard by Government officials.

Thus the Panchayats, particularly in civil cases, were to some extent a part of the judicial system of the Bhonslas and Scindias. Recourse to the Royal courts was an expensive affair, hence the popularity of the Panchayats.

From 1818 onwards the District was under the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, and for a little more than four decades that followed, i.e., upto 1861 "Civil Justice was administered by a Judge and a native Judicial Staff framed after the model of the North-West Provinces, and consisting of Principal Sudder Ameens, Sudder Ameens, and Moonsiffs; and under a Procedure Code prepared by Mr. A.A. Roberts when he held the office of Judge."[1]

With the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861 the posts of the 'Principal Sudder Ameens', 'Sudder Ameens' and 'Moonsiffs were all abolished, and the Civil Procedure Act (No. VIII of 1859) was extended throughout

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1882, p.15.

the Provinces aiming at a more effective and systematic administration of Law and Justice. At the headquarters of the District, i.e., at Narsimhapur the Deputy Commissioner and his assistant had their courts, and in the interior of the District, rather at tahsil headquarters, there were the 'tahsildaree courts'. All these courts had original jurisdiction. Above them were the appellate courts of the Divisional Commissioner at Jabalpur and, over all, that of the Judicial Commissioner at Nagpur who was 'at the apex of the judicial pyramid.'

The Tahsildars or Sub-Collectors were classified into judicial grades and were invested with judicial powers as given in the table ahead.

To start with this was the set-up of Civil Judiciary in the Central Provinces. The peculiarity of this arrangement was that the various Civil Judges had also magisterial and fiscal duties to perform. Though the Civil Procedure Code was introduced in 1861-62, it took actual effect in these courts only at the close of 1862. Prior to this the Punjab Code of Civil Procedure was in force.

In 1863 the Commissionaries were reconstituted and Narsimhapur District came under Nerbudda Division. Consequently the Commissioner of Nerbudda Division become the Divisional appellate authority in Narsimhapur District.

In view of the disadvantages in combining the civil, magisterial and executive authority in the same officers of a district and thus making even unimportant civil cases a dragging affair, it was arranged, mainly at the suggession of the then Judicial Commissioner J. Strachey, that "the whole of the Suits at the central Station of each district (save those Suits which come before the Deputy Commissioner), shall ordinarily be tried by one Officer, whose Court will be called the Station Court .... they will be known to the people as the Courts devoted to Civil Justice."[1]

Thus the Assistant Commissioner at Narsimhapur presided over the Station Court exclusively for Civil Judiciary. A system of inspection and supervision of subordinate courts was also evolved, involving scrutiny of records, procedure and decisions of their presiding officers.

From the year 1865 onwards the judicial machinery of the District consisted of courts established under the Central Provinces Courts Act 1865 (XIV of 1865) and those which exercised authority under Act XI of 1865 relating to Small Causes Courts. The said Act legalised eight grades of courts to be presided over by the Tahsildar, Assistant Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner, Commissioner and the Judicial Commissioner. Their territorial jurisdiction and civil powers are shown below.

1. Ibid., 1863-64, p..30.

Administration of Criminal Justice

In 1862 the Code of Criminal Procedure (Act XXV of 1861) was introduced and was made applicable to the whole of the Provinces. The authority for administering Criminal as well as Civil Justice in the District was vested in the Executive staff, comprising the Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, Extra Assistant Commissioner and Tahsildars. The Deputy Commissioner's Court and the Courts of Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners were located at the headquarters of the District while those of the Tahsildars were in the interior of the District.

The table below shows the details regarding the location and powers of these courts.

(1) Court of Tahsildar (seat in the interior of the District).	They exercised the power of Subordinate Magistrate under Criminal Procedure Code.
(2) Court of Assistant Commissioner and Extra Assistant Commissioner (seat at District headquarters.)	They exercised the Power of either a subordinate Magistrate or Magistrate under Criminal Procedure Code.
(3) Court of District Magistrate (seat at district headquarters)	In addition to ordinary powers of a magistrate they were empowered to try all cases except those punishable with death and could inflict any punishment upto seven years imprisonment.
(4) Court of the Divisional Commissioner.	Powers of a Sessions Judge.
(5) Court of Judicial Commissioner (seat at Nagpur, but only a court of appeal and revision).	Functioned as a Sudder of High Court and had power of sanctioning capital punishment.

All the above courts except that of the Commissioner were presided over by the respective officers singley, i.e., unassisted by either jury or assessors. In the Sessions Court the Commissioner was assisted by two assessors. When later Naib Tahsildars were appointed in tahsil places to assist the Tahsildars, they were invested with criminal subordinate magisterial powers of second class. In these courts also only a single officer presided.

For further extension of Criminal Judiciary in the interior of the District responsible local citizens were vested with magisterial powers to serve as

Honorary Magistrates. A Manual for the guidance of Honorary Magistrates was also introduced in 1862. These Honorary Magistrates tried petty criminal cases, and this avoided rush of such cases in the courts of Naib Tahsildars. Till 1863, Narsimhapur Revenue District was under the jurisdiction of the Commissioner, Jabalpur Division. But in 1863 Nerbudda Division was constituted and this District came under the newly created Division. It has been mentioned that in the courts of magistrates the officer concerned presided over the court singly. Act X of 1872 provided that while trying important cases the Magistrate should be assisted by juries consisting of three persons. The Code of Criminal Procedure was ammended accordingly. Under section 36 the Criminal Procedure Code further provided that the Deputy Commissioner, Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners, i.e., District Magistrate and other I Class Magistrates could exercise Summary Powers.

A new Criminal Code was enforced with effect from 1st January, 1873. It marked the introduction of an important era in the history of Criminal Justice. This Code defined and enhanced the powers of various Magistrates and authorised them to try cases summarily. On the subject of appeals especially, the law was greatly altered, the principal changes being the power to appeal in certain cases of acquittal (section 272) and the limited power of enhancing punishments on appeal (section 252). The law was made more complete with regard to public prosecution, the duties of landholders in reporting crime and the arrest of offenders by private persons. The law relating to the preventive jurisdction of magistrates was made more comprehensive and clearer than under the old Code. It was also provided that the jury shall consist of five persons.

In pursuance of the policy of the Adminstration the Deputy Commissioner was instructed to supervise the work of Benches of Honorary Magsitrates and to associate a Stipendiary Magistrate with them for their gradual improvement. In view of their inexperience, orders were issued in 1890 that "Police cases should not, as a rule, be sent to inexperienced Honorary Magistrates, but when Bench learnt its work and shown capacity in dealing with trivial cases, the class of cases made over to it for disposal is raised."[1]

Within a short span of two decades the Honorary Magistracy became well established. In the late 1880's Narsimhapur had three Second Class and six Third Class Honorary Magistrates. The Third Class Magistrates included three Magistrates of the Bench at Gadarwara. Laudable work was done by Seth Tikaram, a Second Class Honoray Magistrate of Narsimhapur, Thakur Dhiraj Singh, another Second Class Magistrate of Singhpur, and Pandit Vittal Rao, a Third Class Magistrate of Tendukheda. Tendukheda and Singhpur,

1. Ibid., 1889-90, p.VII.

civil work as well as rent-law cases being taken up by Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars. The new Munsifs Scheme was introduced at the close of the year with a view to confining Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars to their proper duties.

The year 1903 witnessed the introduction of the new scheme providing for the appointment of a large addittonal number of Munsifs and the gradual relief of the Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars from civil work unconnected with the rent law. During the year supervision of the subordinate civil courts was transferred from the Deputy Commissioner to the District Judge. In 1904,[1] (by the C. P. Civil Courts Act II of 1904) the Civil Courts Act was radically amended and Civil Judiciary was completelv separated from Administration. Civil judical work entirely devolved upon Divisional Judge, District Judge, Sub-Judges and Munsifs.

Amendment of the Central Provinces Civil Courts Act 1904, in 1909-10 permitted the decision of certain cases, i.e, those relating to appeals in murder cases and complicated civil cases, by Benches of Judges of the Court of Judicial Commissoner instead of by a single judge and extnded the jurisdiction of the Subordinate Civil Courts. The District Judge who was now in charge of the civil courts in the District exercised only a limited jurisdiction. The Divisional and Sessions Judges had superior jurisdiction of civil powers.

In 1917, the Central Provinces Courts Act (Act I of 1917) was passed and put into operation from 14th May, 1917.[2] Accordingly, Civil Judiciary underwent further reorganisation. The courts of Divisional Judges were abolished and the Province was divided into nine districts under District and Sessions Judges. The District of Narsimhapur was placed under the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge, Hoshangabad.

The year 1924 saw further reforms. By the C. P. Courts Act (VIII of 1924) the Subordinate Judges and Munsifs were designated as Subordinate Judges, Ist Class, and Subordinate Judges, 2nd Class respectively. The pecuniary limit of the jurisdiction of Subordinate Judge, 2nd Class was raised to Rs. 5,000.

In 1928 the Court of II Class Subordinate Judge at Narsimhapur was linked with Jabalpur and the Judge was ordered to hold court for 15 days a month alternatively at these places with effect from Ist September 1928. This linked court system was abolished in 1930 and whole-time Subordinate Judges were posted to these places.

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1. Ibid., 1904-05, p.12
2. Ibid., 1917-18., p.9.

Towards the close of 1931, consequent on the abolition of Nerbudda Division, the District of Narsimhapur was amalgamated with Hoshangabad. This arrangement continued till 1956. This did not affect the set-up of Civil Judiciary much, as the District was already under the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge, Hoshangabad.

In 1933 the Central Provinces Courts Act 1917 (I of 1917) was amended by Act I of 1933 whereby the small cause court powers of Sub-ordinate Judges of the First and Second Class were extended to Rs. 1000 and Rs. 500, respectively. The year 1933 was also signalized by the passing of the Central Provinces Debt Conciliation Act (II of 1933). Consequently, in 1934, Debt Conciliation Boards were constitued at certain places in the Central Provinces. This resulted in the decrease of litigation of a small cause nature considerably. Subordinate Judges were appointed as Chairmen of those Boards.

In 1935 the Court of Subordinate Judge, Ist class, at Narsimhapur was temporarily closed from 10th September 1935 and the Judge so spared was posted to Hoshangabad from 17th September, 1935. This Court was again revived after a gap of few years. Linked court (2nd class, subordinate) system was introduced between Narsimhapur and Gadarwara and the court at Gadarwara was closed in 1836. The Court of the Judicial Commissioner at Nagpur was abolished on 9th January, 1936 and a chartered High Court was established for the whole of Central Provinces and Berar with its seat at Nagpur. In 1944 Narsimhapur was linked with Hoshangabad as the latter had no separate Class I Judge. In 1945 the designation of Subordinate Judge was changed to Civil Judge.

The Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals and Alienated Lands) Act, 1950 was put into operation in 1951 and as a result of it all suits under Tenancy Act ceased to exist. With the Reorganisation of States in 1956, the High Court was shifted to its present headquarters at Jabalpur. From that date Narsimhapur became a separate Revenue District, but continued to be a part of the Civil District of Hoshangabad. Consequently the District and Sessions Judge, Hoshangabad, exercised his jurisdiction over Narsimhapur District also. In the same year the powers of the District Judges were raised and they were empowered to hear all appeals against the decree and order of Civil Judges upto Rs. 10,000 in value. The Tahsildars were invested with powers of a Civil Judge for trying cases under section 106 of Central Provinces and Berar Tenancy Act. The Madhya Pradesh Civil Courts Act of 1958 (XIX of 1958) was put into effect from Ist January, 1959. As a result, the Munsif's Court was abolished and one of the senior most First Class Civil Judges was appointed as Additional District and Sessions Judge with headquarters at Narisimhapur.

Commissioner lay to the Commissioner. It was further suggested by the Judicial Commissioner that suits relating to issues of greater difficulty and more important consequences might be confined to the higher courts as these cases had to be heard by qualified and experienced judges.

Both at Chawarpatha and Gadarwara a Naib Tahsildar was placed in 1873. The system of appointing petty judges to decide petty suits was further extended to this District when an additional Naib Tahsildar was sanctioned for Gadarwara in 1874. Meanwhile, the Court of Tahsildar at Chawarpatha was abolished.

In 1874 the Commissioner of Nerbudda Division, in consultation with the Deputy Commissioner of Narsimhapur, strongly recommended that one of the two Naib Tahsildars' Courts at Gadarwara should be converted into a Civil Judicial Tahsildars' Court, and that the Naib Tahsildar's Court Chawarpatha should be abolished since it usually tried only suits below Rs. 50. The courts at the headquarters of the District were to continue. But the volume of petty civil litigation was always on the increase and the Naib Tahsildar's court continued to exist at Chanwarpatha in addition to those at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara. The new Civil Procedure Code (Act X of 1877) came into force in 1877. It materially extended the jurisdiction of small causes courts. The jurisdiction of Tahsildars was extended upto Rs. 300.

In 1885 a Civil Judge was appointed at Narsimhapur. He was invested with certain powers of the court of the Deputy Commissioner. This was followed by the opening of Munsif's courts in the District. Till 30th September, 1885, there was a Munsif's court at Gadarwara. On 1st October, 1885, another Munsif's Court was established at Narsimhapur and the court at Gadarwara was continued. The Munsifs belonged to the cadre of Additional Tahsildars. It was further laid down that if a Naib Tahsildar of a tahsil enjoyed civil judicial powers, the establishment of the Court of a Munsif should be in lieu of that of the former. In addition, if the civil appellate work was too heavy for the Deputy Commissioner, Assistant or Extra Assistant Commissioners could be appointed as Civil Judges with appellate powers.

In 1885 an important scheme for Judicial reorganisation was drawn up and incorporated in the Central Provinces Civil Courts Act (Act XVI of 1885). Though it became Law on 2nd October 1885, yet it actually came into force from January 1886.

The principal feature of the scheme was the gradual separation of administration of Civil Justice by the establishment of new civil courts in all places where there was work enough to occupay a separate Judge. Thus in some places the new courts called the Courts of the Munsifs were established

to relieve the burnen of Tahsildar at headquarters of tahsils. Another important feature of the scheme was the relief of Deputy Commissioner of the districts in which civil appellate work was heavy, by the appointment of more officers of the rank of Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner to be Civil Judges with appellate powers.

In 1889, the Chief Commissioner directed that the Naib Tahsildars should be invested with civil powers under Section II of Act XVI of 1885. In the same year civil judicial powers were extended to the Naib Tahsildar at Narsimhapur.

In 1891, the Assistant Commissioner's Court at Narsimhapur was abolished. But the number of Civil Judges in the District was maintained at two by the posting of one Extra Assistant Commissioner for the disposal of civil work.

At the close of 1891 sanction was given for the appointment of a Judicial Assistant to the Commissioners of 'Jubbulpore and Nerbudda' Divisions and the appointmont became effective from 1st January 1892. He took over all the civil work of the Commissioner. He was not made subject to the control of or subordinate to the Commissioner for reasons of administrative convenience as he was intended to practically relieve him of all civil judicial work. At the same time as regards the burden of civil appellate work, relief was afforded to the Deputy Commissioner by the appointment of a Civil Judge.

In the year 1900, the Judicial Commissioner submitted a bill to amend the Civil Courts Act effecting the formal withdrawal of civil powers from the Commissioners. As a result the Judicial Assistant to the commissioner became the Divisional Judge.

During the year 1901-02 the scheme for separating the work of administering Civil Justice from Criminal Judicial and Executive work was, to some extent, brought into force. Deputy Commissioners were relieved of all civil judicial work. The Court of the Civil Judge was declared independent of the control of the court of the Deputy Commissioner. To each district was assigned a Civil Judicial staff of Assistant and Extra Assistant Commissioners distinct from that to which the disposal of criminal judicial and executive work was allotted. It was settled that, apart, from hearing civil suits and appeals, the only duties on which Civil Judicial Assistants could be employed were the charge of the Treasury and that of the office of the District Registrar.

The year 1902 was the first throughout which civil judicial work was carried on by a separate staff. The separation was not complete, partly owing to the nominal occupation by Deputy Commissioners of the office of the District Judge and partly to the paucity of Munsifs which necessiated ordinary

S. No.	Court	Territorial Jurisdiction	Original Jurisdiction	Appellate Jurisdiction
1	Tahsildar Grade II	Tahsil	Cases upto Rs. 100 in value	
2	Tahsildar Grade I	,,	Cases upto Rs. 200 in value	
3	Assistant Commissioner Grade III	Part of the District	Cases upto Rs. 500 in value	
4	Assistant Commissioner Grade II	,,	Cases upto Rs. 1,000 in value	
5	Assistant Commissioner Grade I	,,	Cases upto Rs. 5,000 in value	
6	Deputy Commissioner	District	Cases of above Rs. 5,000 in value	Appeals from courts at 1 to 4
7	Commissioner	Division	,,	Appeals from courts at 5 & 6
8	Judicial Commissioner	Province	,,	Appeals from court at 7 and appellate cases from Courts at 6 and 7.

In 1866 R. Temple, the Chief Commissioner, raised the status of Gadarwara tahsil to that of a sub-division by posting an Assistant Commissioner with full judicial powers. This was in view of the growing economic and commercial importance of this small town. The Tahsildar continued to assist the Assistant Commissioner.

But as time passed the importance of Gadarwara began to decline. So, the Assistant Commissioner was called back to the headquarters (1869-70) on the plea that the Tahsildar at Gadarwara had powers to "hear and determine suits of the ordinary value of those which occur at Gadarwara, and as Nursingpore can be reached by rail in little more than an hour's time, it appeared unnecessary to retain a superior officer in a place of comparatively little importance."[1] The Naib Tahsildars' Courts were ancillary Civil Courts and

1. Ibid., 1869-70, p. 2.

were mostly opened in 1870's to meet the pressure of civil litigation. Generally speaking, with all this arrangement for the work of civil judiciary in the District, civil justice was efficiently performed. But the civil courts were not as popular as was expected, and were ill-suited to the then Indian society. The Chief Commissioner, while reviewing the progress of the civil courts wrote: "Our Court machinery is simple and readily understood by the creditor class, but less so by the poorer classes, who in a majority of cases are the debtors. The Courts too are bound by hard and fast rules and by a procedure which they cannot set aside or ignore for a moment, and they act accordingly with the regularity of machinery, and benefit chiefly those who can work them best. It was found that creditors had gradually came to use the Courts as a cheap machinery for collecting their debts, without themselves going to any trouble in the way of first attempting to collect them for themselves, and it required a Circular Order from the Judicial Commissioner to warn the Judges against giving the creditors costs in such cases. Again, the employment of Pleaders in the very pettiest cases was a growing custom, and instructions had to be issued regulating the award of costs in such cases."[1]

Mention has been made about the appointment of an Assistant Commissioner at the District headquarters dealing exclusively with all civil judicial work at his 'Station Court'. Since no case was to be beyond his competency this officer was invested with the highest powers an assistant could legally exercise. Consequently the appellate work with the Commissioner became heavier than that with the Deputy Commissioner. To avoid such rush of work, especially when there were more than one officer exercising simultaneously the same class of judicial powers in the District, the Chief Commissioner thought it fit to revise the present system. It was decided that the Tahsildar at the District headquarters should take up civil suits within his competency; and the Station Court presided over by the Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner should have powers of a court of 3rd or 4th class under the Central Provinces Courts Act, i e., upto Rs. 500 or Rs. 1000 in value. "This officer will hear all suits above the competency of the Tahsildars but within his own, and such suits within the competency (as regards primary jurisdiction) of the headquarters Tahsildar as the Deputy Commissioner may wish to assign to him so as to relieve the Tahsildar. Suits above Rs. 1,000 in value will be laid in the smaller districts in the Court of the Deputy Commissioner himself, in the larger districts in the Court of an Assistant Commissioner invested with the powers of a Court of the 5th Class.[2] As a result of this appeals from decrees and orders of Tahsildars and Station Courts lay to the Deputy Commissioner and those from the courts of 5th Class and Deputy

1. Ibid., 1872-73, pp. VI-VII.
2. Ibid, p.X.

being in the interior of the District, had no Stipendiary Magistrates. In Gadarwara, the Bench of Honorary Magistrates was to supplement the courts of Stipendiary Magistrates.

The appointment of two Additional Sessions Judges for the Jabalpur and Nerbudda Divisions on 1st January 1892 afforded some relief to the Commissioners. They were relieved of most of their Sessions cases.

With the dawn of the twentieth century the strength of magistracy decreased and this was due to the separation of the civil judicial from the criminal branch, and civil judicial officers from this time onwards were relieved of the criminal work. This period also witnessed the appointment of public prosecutors to be employed before the Divisional Sessions Court as the re-peresentative of the Crown. Tahsildars with heavier criminal work were relieved by investing Naib Tahsildars with criminal powers. The Act No. XI of 1910 amended the Central Provinces Courts Act of 1904. By this Act Benches consisting of two Judges of the Judicial Commissioners' Court started sitting to hear appeals from persons sentenced to death and for confirmation of death sentences passed by the lower court.

In 1910-11, in order to relieve the District Magistrate of the District from the necessity of trying original criminal cases except under special circumtances and at the same time to avoid the load of increasing work of Sessions Judges by requiring them to try cases which could be adequately dealt with by Magistrates, a number of First Class Magistrates were empowered to deal cases under section 30 of the Criminal Procedure Code.

In the year 1911-12 the posts of Sub-Divisional Magistrates were created. Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners were placed in charge of one or more tahsils and given the legal powers of a Sub-Divisional Magistrate in criminal matters and, with certain exceptions, the powers of a Deputy Commissioner under the various revenue laws. The system relieved the Deputy Commissioner of minor unnecessary work and enabled him to attend to more important matters.

The year 1917 saw the reorganisation of the Judicial Department in Central Provinces and Berar. The Central Provinces Courts Act (I of 1917) amended the previous Act on the subject. It was enacted to adjust the law to the new conditions which then arose on the introduction of the new Judicial service organisation scheme under which the courts of the Divisional Judges were abolished and the Province was divided into nine Civil and Sessions Districts. It came into effect from 14th May, 1917. Accordingly, one of the District and sessions Judges was posted at Hoshangabad with his jurisdiction over Narsimhapur Revenue District. Appeals and revisions against the decisions

of the First Class Magistrates resulting in conviction and imprisonment for a period upto four years were taken up by the District and Sessions Judge.

In 1931-32, the revenue District of Narsimhapur was merged with Hoshangabad. In 1936, the Court of the Judicial Commissioner was replaced by a chartered High Court with its seat at Nagpur.

This set-up of criminal judiciary continued till the dawn of Independence in 1947. In the forties of the present century much dissatisfaction prevailed in the public due to heavy arrears of criminal work. The cases were constantly adjourned due to officers being busy with multifurious work which consisted of executive and revenue duties. In the year 1947, the system of Honorary Magistrates was abolished. In order to dispose of arrears the Government created a new cadre of Judge Magistrates from 1st July 1950. They were invested with First Class magisterial powers and tried cases under section 30 of the Criminal Procedure Code committed criminal cases and summary trials. They were exclusively meant for the disposal of criminal work and were not given any revenue or administrative duties. This resulted in the speedy disposal of criminal cases. The Judge Magistrates, though under the administrative control of the District Magistrates, were also responsible to the District and Sessions Judge as regards their work. Thus the creation of Judge Magistrates was a step towards the separation of the Judicary from the Executive.

In 1955 the Criminal Procedure Code was amended to enhance the appellate powers of the District and Sessions Judges. As a result, the appeals and revisions against the decisions of Second and Third Class Magistrates, which were entertained by the District Magistrates, now went to the District and Sessions Judge.

In 1956, the system of trial with the help of jurors and assessors was discontinued.

This set-up of Criminal Judiciary continued without any major change till the separation of the District from Hoshangabad in 1956. Consequent on the Reorganization of States the High Court was transferred to Jabalpur, its present seat. An Additional District and Sessions Judge was appointed at Narsimhapur. However, the District continued to be under the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge, Hoshangabad.

INCIDENCE OF CRIMES

Serious crimes like dacoity, gang robbery and smuggling are not of common occurrence in the District. The more prevalent crimes, ranging

according to their total number, are ordinary thefts, miscellaneous cases under I.P.C., burglary, cattle theft, roiting, murder and kindnapping.

The Table below shows the details regarding various crimes from 1956 to 1964.—

Year	Dacoity	Robbery	Murder	Riot	Burglary	Cattle thefts	Ordinary thefts	Kidnapping	Misc. I.P.C. cases	Total
1956	—	14	12	37	215	27	547	3	327	1,182
1957	3	3	21	20	207	20	439	—	237	950
1958	1	2	15	26	201	26	511	4	256	1,042
1959	—	11	22	28	168	17	486	7	290	1,029
1960	1	6	19	36	144	30	422	1	268	927
1961	5	6	19	28	132	19	330	8	310	857
1962	2	3	11	12	150	16	293	2	276	765
1963	1	3	15	14	161	12	306	3	371	865
1964	1	2	9	24	210	22	387	5	439	1,099

From the Table above the following facts are brought to light.—

1. Dacoity

The number of crimes under this head has shown a declining trend since 1962, the number having decreased from 5 in 1961 to 2 in 1962 and one each in the years 1963 and 1964.

2. Robbery

Cases under this head have also declined from the year 1960 onwards. The highest number of cases was 14 in the year 1956, followed by 11 in 1959, 6 each in 1960 and 1961. This number further declined to 3 each in 1962 and 1963 and 1 in 1964.

3. Murder

The incidence of this crime is also not very large. The highest number recorded was 22 in 1959, followed by 21 in 1957, 19 each in 1960 and 1961 and 15 in 1963.

4. Riot

This crime was at its peak in 1956 when 37 offences were committed, followed by 36 in 1960, 28 in 1959 and 1961 and 26 in 1958.

5. Burglary

The number of offences under this head was the highest in 1956 when 215 cases occurred, followed by 210 in 1964, 207 in 1957, and 201 in 1958.

Taking into account the total number of crimes, it is clear from the same table that the highest number of crimes was committed in 1956, followed by 1099 cases in 1964, 1041 cases in 1958 and 1021 cases in 1959.

Apart from cases of ordinary and miscellaneous thefts there are other cases involving offences against property. Details of such cases and amount of property stolen and recovered during the past nine years are given in the Table below.—

Year	No. of cases of property theft	Total value of property stolen (Rs.)	No. of cases in which property was recovered.	Total value of property recovered (Rs.)	Percentage of Col. 4 to 2	Percentage of Col. 5 to 3
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1956	739	1,95,526	345	58,671	46.06	29.09
1957	624	1,37,773	235	52,416	37.06	37.09
1958	680	1,27,138	254	51,767	37.03	48.08
1959	642	72,112	190	19,397	39.05	26.08
1960	545	73,896	179	16,913	32.8	21.5
1961	447	1,03,602	145	30,594	32.4	29.4
1962	441	95,822	161	19,876	36.5	20.7
1963	452	93,802	182	35,057	40 35	36.77
1964	588	1,12,768	262	33,878	44.72	33.04

Crimes under Other Acts

The crime situation hitherto discussed relates to the offences against property, human body and public tranquillity. Other crimes common in the District are those against the Acts of Excise, Prohibition, etc. The number of such offences is tabulated below.—

Year	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964
Offences against Excise Act	31	63	52	33	38	29	56	46	158
Gambling	66	756	459	565	580	354	465	61	82
Prohibition	56	107	N.A.	101	117	89	130	113	111

Cognizable Crimes

The following Table shows details regarding the number and investigation of the crimes in the District during the period 1956-64.—

Year	No. of offences reported	No. of cases investi-gated	No. of cases sent up for trial	Persons tried	Persons acquitted or dis-charged	Persons convicted
1956	1,182	1,025	413	1,302	155	375
1957	950	908	361	822	248	503
1958	1,041	961	377	782	331	351
1959	1,029	1,000	400	698	266	355
1960	927	904	370	490	208	230
1961	857	817	365	666	331	250
1962	765	716	428	474	113	312
1963	865	758	311	510	173	337
1964	1,099	1,050	408	659	163	306

ORGANIZATION OF THE POLICE FORCE

In 1862 the Police of the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories came under reshuffle as part of the programme for reorganisation of the entire Police Force in the Central Provinces according to the Central Provices Police Act of 1861. It originally consisted of Military and Civil Police. Besides there were the Municipal and Village Police. It was proposed to break up the Military and the Civil Police and to substitute a new Police Force. Accordingly the Military detachment at Narsimhapur was diverted to Hoshangabad, the then headquarters.

The newely organized constabulary of the Central Provinces had the Inspector-General of Police as its chief of staff, assisted by two Deputy Inspectors-General. The Post of the Deputy Inspectors-General was, however, abolished in 1864. The Officer at the district level was the District Superintendent of Police, occasionally assisted by an Assistant Superintendent. He was also given subordinate staff like Deputy Superintendents, Circle Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Head Constables and a regularly enrolled constabulary. The Police in the District, though departmentally independent, were to act under the general direction of the District Magistrate. This was the then structure of the regular Police Force in the District. The expenditure was met by the Provincial Government.

In villages, the *Kotwars* or village watchmen were not included in the regular cadre of this force. Thus, there was no Village Police in the Central

Provinces. The Village *Kotwars* of this Province who respresented the Village Police were not included in the organised constabulary. So far as the Provincial Police Department was concerned, they were simply the servants of the *malguzars* or village headmen. It was to the *malguzars* that the Police Department looked for all authorised reports and for all assistance and cooperation as regards crime. If a crime was suppressed, or a periodical report was omitted or assistance in tracing an offender or a fugitive was not promptly rendered, it was against the malguzar that the Superintendent of Police lodged a complaint with the District Officer and not against the *Kotwar*. This system was considered to be quite a reliable and workable one.[1]

In 1863 the pay of the lowest grade of foot-constables was raised from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 per month. With a view to ensuring better efficiency in the detection of crimes, arrangements were made to instruct the Police in Criminal Law and Procedure and also general education whenever such necessity was felt. At the headquarters of the District there was a school where the illiterate policemen could learn to read and write.

With the opening of the G.I.P. Railway through the District of Narsimhapur in 1870, the Railway Police Force of this area was brought under the control of the District Superintendent of Police.

Besides their duties connected with the prevention and detection of crimes and offences, the Police had many other miscellaneous duties. "Thus they serve summons; in municipal towns they supervise and control conservancy arrangements; in towns and also in rural circles they collect vital and mortuary statistics; they have a good deal to do with escorting prisoners, treasure, etc. In addition to all this, they are utilized in outbreaks of epidemic to distribute medicines and medical comforts in infected areas, and to see that disinfection is properly carried out."[2]

The year 1891 saw the introduction of salutary reforms in the matter of pay and prospects in the subordinate Police cadre. "A scheme was submitted to and sanctioned by the Secretary of State whereby the pay of constables and Head Constables has been raised (the uumber of the latter being increased), while the classes of Sub-Inspector and Chief Constable have been combined under the former name and given consolidated salaries at improved rates. The minimum pay of four-fifths of the rank and file is now Rs. 7 instead of Rs. 5; and a third grade of Constables on Rs. 8 has been created."[3] Another important feature of the reform introduced, in the same year was the provision

1. C.P. Police Administration Report, 1873, p.33.
2. C.P. Administration Report, 1877-78, p.XXI.
3. Ibid., 1891-92, pp. VII-VIII.

of house accommodation for the Police staff attached to police stations. This question was taken up by the Chief Commissioner and was placed on proper basis. Standard plans were prepared and issued and a beginning made in building quarters.

In 1892 progress was made in the work of providing accommodation to the Police Force attached to the station houses or in Reserve at headquarter lines in the District. and the police station houses at Chichli and Tendukhera were completed.[1]

The year 1907 saw more reforms on the recommendations of the Police Commission. "Among the reforms introduced as a result of the Police Commission scheme, the most important measures carried out were the appointment of two Deputy Inspectors-General and a Railway Superintendent, the interesting, and so far successful experiment of appointing Deputy Superintendents of Police, and an inauguration of the system of self-contained station house circles. These new measures necessitated an increased cadre and increased expenditure."[2]

In the 1920's the Province was divided into two ranges, each under a Deputy Inspector-General. The posts of Inspector-General, Deputy Inspector-General and District Superintendent of Police were filled by officers of the Imperial Service. The post of Deputy Superintendent was of the Provincial Service, filled either by promotion or by direct appointment. The subordinates to Deputy Superintendent, the Circle Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors, were principally direct recruits. On Ist October, 1931, the District was reduced to a sub-division and merged with the Hoshangabad district. But on the formation of new Madhya Pradesh in 1956, the District was again revived and separated from Hoshangabad. It has been placed under the control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Central Range, with headquarters at Jabalpur.

Present Organization and Set-Up

In contrast with the past, today the force is highly mobile, cavalry being replaced with modern vehicles of transport. Up-to-date equipment in weapons and the wireless section make it a much more efficient striking force than its old time-counterpart. All officers and men undergo a specialized training in various branches of crime detection before being drafted to the force proper. The strength of the District force at the end of the year 1964 consisted of 348 officers and men under the administrative control of the Superintendent of Police. The strength of the force roughly comes to one police man for every

1. Ibid., 1892-93, p.113.
2. Ibid., 1907-08, p.VIII.

5.9 Sq. miles (9.49 km) of territory and for 1024 persons of the population. The officers group comprises a Superintendent of Police, 4 Inspectors, 19 Sub-Inspectors, 5 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 55 Sergeants and Head Constables and 264 Constables.

The Table below shows the strength and cost of Civil Police in the District from 1956 to 1964.—

Year	Supdt./ Asstt. Supdts. & Deputy Supdts.	Inspectors	Sub-Inspectors	Asstt. Sub-Inspectors	Sergeants Head Constables	Constables	Total Strength	Total Cost Rs.
1956	1	4	16	8	50	252	331	54,610
1957	1	4	16	8	50	252	331	3,52,669
1958	1	4	16	8	50	252	331	4,03,703
1959	1	4	16	8	50	252	331	4,23,300
1960	1	4	16	8	50	254	333	4,44,047
1961	1	4	16	8	50	254	333	5,15,501
1962	1	4	20	4	52	260	341	4,99,656
1963	1	4	19	5	55	265	349	5,26,496
1964	1	4	19	5	55	564	348	5,70,631

Out of the 4 Inspectors, one each is posted at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara tahsils and are designated Circle Inspectors, the third attends to court work and is designated the Police Prosecutor, while the fourth is attached to the Reserve Police lines and designated Reserve Inspector. From the strength of the Sub-Inspectors, one assists the Police Prosecutor at Narsimhapur and one is posted as Assistant Police Prosecutor at Gadarwara, the rest being distributed among the *thanas* (police stations) and known as Station House Officers. The Sub-Inspector attached to the Special Branch reports on District and local intelligence on political matters, and the Sub-Inspector attached to the crime branch is concerned with the detection of organised crime in the District. Of recent origin is the Modus Operandi Branch intended to keep a vigilant eye on the movements of released prisoners. There is a Sub-Inspector attached to this section.

Police Stations

The District has 10 Police Stations at Narsimhapur, Kareli, Themi, Mungwani, Gotegaon, Gadarwara, Gotitoriya, Suatalao, Sainkheda and Tendukheda. The town Station Houses of Narsimhapur Kareli, Gotegaon.

and Gadarwara divide their day's work into three beats of eight hours each and keep a round the clock vigil. Other Station Houses arrange for patrolling the interior (*Dehat*), besides local village duties.

Railway Police

The Railway Police is being controlled by the Superintendent of Railway Police. Western Section, Jabalpur. There is only one Police Station of the Railway Police in the District, at Gadarwara.

There are no separate units of prohibition and Anti-Corruption Police in the District.

Home Guards

The scheme of Home Guards came into force in this District in November 1947 after the enactment of the Central Provinces and Berar Home Guards Act, 1947 (XV of 1947). Under the scheme able - bodied adults between the ages of 19 and 35 years are enrolled and imparted basic training in the art of self-defence so that in times of disorder they might act as secondary to the police and serve the nation as a second line of defence in emergency.

The *Company Commandant*, Home Guards, Hoshangabad is the head of the organisation for the districts of Narsimhapur and Hoshangabad. He is assisted in the efficient performance of his duties by a Platoon Commander posted at Narsimhapur and instructors posted at two training centres which are changed every year. A training camp is held at these places for Rural Home Guards consisting of 24 trainees in each batch. The period of training for the Home Guards is three months. Till 1964, 372 persons were trained under this scheme as shown below.—

	NCOs	Sainiks	Total
		URBAN	
1963	3	19	22
1964	—	24	24
1965	1	8	9

	NCOs	Sainiks	Total
		RURAL	
1963	23	71	94
1964	22	67	89
1965	32	102	134
	81	291	372

JAILS AND LOCK-UPS

Location of Jails and Lock-ups

There are two penal institutions in the District, the Borstal Institute and tha Subsidiary Jail, both situated at Narsimhapur and under the control and supervision of the Inspector-General of Prisons. In addition there are ten lock-ups, one under each police station and having separate accommodation for males and females. These lock-ups are under the administrative jurisdiction of the District Magistrate and are supervised by the Superintendent of Police.

History of Prison Organization

With the formation of the Central Provinces the District Jail at Narsimhapur was placed under the executive charge of the Civil Surgeon in subordination to the District Officers, chiefly the Magistrate. This officer also enjoyed magisterial powers to punish prisoners for breaches of prison discipline. Formerly the jail was periodically inspected by the Inspector of Prisons of the North-Western Provinces. Since this officer was to inspect the Jail from a far-off place, competent inspection was impossible. In 1862 an Inspector of Prisons was appointed for the Central Provinces. With the reorganization of the Police Force in 1861-62 the permanent guard duty was taken up by the constabulary. The general control and superintendence of all the prisons in the Central Provinces were vested in the Inspector of Prisons.

The Jail at Narsimhapur was constructed round about the year 1842 with solid and excellent masonry.[1] But its construction was not well suited to conservancy, internal economy or ventilation.

The recommendations of the Indian Jail Committee of 1864 brought out certain reforms in the general management of the jail. The prisoners started getting filtered or boiled water for drinking, ample clothing and periodical medical inspection. Weak prisoners were exempted from hard labour. For females complete and separate accommodation was provided. Prisoners were classified according to the nature of their crimes and the punishment awadred by dinstinctively coloured uniforms. Diminution of food as a punitive measure was prohibited. The 'good conduct system' also was introduced. As an incentive to this, prison labour was classified into 'hard', 'medium' and 'light', and prisoners with really good conduct got into the third group. The hard labour included oil pressing, grinding wheat, sawing timber, grinding lime, pounding aloe fibre, breaking stones, earth work, and brick and tile making. The District Inspector of Schools periodically inspected the course of their instruction.

1. Ibid., 1862, p 32.

The Prisons Act passed in 1870 mainly aimed at the improvement of the existing rules and regulations that governed the prisons and therefore did not make any change in the general management of prisons. As a reward to their good conduct and obedience to the prison discipline, prisoners earned remission of one month of their sentence for each year. The punishments inflicted for misconduct in the Jail were corporal punishments, solitary confinement, closed confinement with reduced diets and confinement in irons. In 1874 the Chief Commissioner directed that flogging should be resorted to only in exceptional cases.

In 1876 the appointment of Inspector General of Jails was combined with that of Inspector General of Police. The rules of classification of North-Western Provinces were adopted. Accordingly habitual criminals were separated and specially dealt with so as to make prison life distasteful to them. The short-term prisoners were also given hard labour in isolation, for companionship and delightful atmosphere in jails always resulted in reconvictions in many cases. So also prisoners being overfed rendered prison life attractive. In 1879, therefore, a reduced scale of diet was tried for the first time. The Jail authorities welcomed this experiment. On the Ist April, 1883, a new diet scale for all classes of prisoners was introduced.

Towards the close of 1889 the Government of India sanctioned a scheme for improving the pay of Jail Officials and substitution of warder guards in place of the police guards. And in 1891 the convict-warder system was introduced in the Narsimhapur Jail.

The accommodation of juvenile convicts has always been a problem to the jail authorities. Considering the importance and magnitude of the problem of Juvenile Delinquency the Narsimhapur District Jail was partially converted into a jail for casual juveniles while the habitual juveniles were kept at Jabalpur. This Jail for adolescents began to work on modified Borstal lines, the principal object being to give the adolescents a good training in agriculture, handicrafts and industries All juveniles from the northern part of the Central Provinces were admitted to the Jail. In 1917, eighteen boys of this Jail were sent to Mesopotamia in response to a call for volunteers for the Jail Labour Corps. This was followed by sending 31 boys next year.

The Subsidiary Jail

The present Subsidiary Jail of Narsimhapur was constructed in 1942 as an annexe to the Borstal Institute. It now provides accommodation for 30 male and 4 female undertrial adult prisoners. On conviction, prisoners of long-term imprisonment are transferred to larger jails. The Jail is under the charge of

the Superintendent of Borstal Institute. He is assisted by one Assistant Jailor, two Head Warders, nine Warders and one Reformist Preacher.

Borstal Institute

With the passage of the Central Provinces and Berar Borstal Act (IX of 1928) the adolescent's jail at Narsimhapur was raised to the status of a Borstal Institute, mainly for the age group between 16 and 21 years from Ist July, 1930. From that date the District Jail was abolished. This institution is now 25 years old, enjoying the status of a Ist Class District Jail. It can accommodate 307 juveniles. The wayward adolescents are psychologically treated here under a scheme of training, followed by a period of restrained freedom. The Superintendent is the Head of the Institute. He is assisted by one Deputy Jailor, three Assistant Jailors, five Head Warders and 18 Warders. For imparting vocational and educational instruction there are five trained Trade Instructors and four trained teachers, respectively. One Reformist Preacher imparts religious instruction. The medical facilities are provided through one Medical Officer (Civil Surgeon), one Assistant Medical Officer, two male Nurses and a Compounder.

The atmosphere of the Institute is homely. The Institute works for about seven and a half hours out of which about two and a half hours are ear-marked for schooling. On admission every inmate has to undergo a system of grading. The period of first six months is termed as the experimental period and marked by the 'Ordinary Grade' during which every movement of an inmate is thoroughly studied in the light of his past environment. Attempt is also made to understand where his vocation lies. The inmates of good conduct are promoted to the higher grade. The next grade of promotion is the 'Star Grade' which is done by the Superintendent. During this period an inmate is trained in a trade according to his physical fitness and aptitude. For exemplary character and conduct extra badge money is also awarded. An inmate thus having won the confidence of the authorities is also posted in supervising duty.

The next grade for promotion from 'Star Grade' is the 'Special Star Grade'. An inmate of this grade is taken to be most trustworthy, and is therefore treated as a 'Prison Officer'. He has superiority over his follows in the lower grades. He also shares with the authorities limited responsibilities in the management of the workshops and godowns of the Institute. Inmates of the 'Special Star Grade' are further promoted to the next and final grade called 'Licence'. This is a period of freedom under supervision.

For breach of rules, the punishments are awarded by the Superintendent, through the 'Institute Panchayat' constituted of elected prisoners. This

Panchayat assists the Superintendent in trying cases of serious offences, while major Borstal offences triable by a Sessions Court are invariably prosecuted. Inmates thus punished are relegated to the lowest grade called the 'Penal Grade' for a period of three months. During this period they are deprived of all the normal facilities and concessions. Moreover, they are required to do hard labour and put on a distinctive dress.

A visiting Committee appointed by the Government in consultation with the commissioner of the Division meets quarterly to recommend the release of eligible inmates. The Inspector General of Prisons as head of the Department and Chairman of the Board Sanctions the release. Other members of the Board include the Collector, a senior Deputy Collector and three non-officials. Three members form the quorum.

Welfare of Prisoners

Vocational Training

The aim of the Institute is to groom the delinquents both physically and mentally and make them good citizens. To facilitate their rehabilitation on release they are being given vocational training. According to their physical fitness and aptitude they learn trades like weaving *niwar*, making *durries*, smithy craft, carpentry and tailoring. They are also taught to handle Ambar Charkha under an 'earn while you learn' scheme.

Educational Facilities

General education upto Primary standard is compulsory. About 90 per cent of the prisoners are classed as illiterate, while seven percent are partially literate and the remaining three per cent have literacy standard above Primary level. The institute has a well equipped library and also subscribes for one daily newspaper and three periodicals. For those interested in fine arts, Drawing and Painting form part of their study. Boys who attain proficiency in this branch are sent for the Arts Examination of the J. J. School of Arts, Bombay. The Reformist Preacher plays an important role in boosting up the morale of the delinquents. He conducts *bhajans* and community prayers. Religious festivals are also celebrated. The inmates are daily provided with all facilities for indoor and outdoor games. The Institute has also one well equipped gymansium. In addition inmates are also encouraged to participate in various cultural programmes.

The 'Scout Patrol' of the Institute attends the annual Burman Fair as a small unit for voluntary social service.

Board of Visitors

The purpose of appointment of a Board of Visitors is to ensure that rules and regulations governing the administration of jail are properly carried out. The members visit the Institute, meet prisoners, hear their complaints and note their observations in the Visitors Book. The Board consists of one official and two non-officials, besides the Collector as its Chairman. The Visitors' suggestions for any improvement in the Jail are at once given active consideration by the authorities.

Number of Convicts

The following Table shows details regarding the number of inmates for the period 1958 to 1964.

	Total			Discharged			Remaining at the end			Total daily average		
Year	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1958	313	—	313	189	—	189	124	—	124	136.87	—	136.87
1959	327	—	327	175		175	152	—	152	130.04	—	130.04
1960	335	—	335	196	—	196	139	—	139	132.80	—	132.80
1961	297	—	297	180	—	180	117	—	117	129.37	—	129.37
1962	350	—	350	195	—	195	155	—	155	145.52	—	145.58
1963	420	—	420	217	—	217	203	—	203	186.38	—	186.38
1964	599	—	599	408	—	408	191	—	191	191.88	—	191.88

Nyaya Panchayats

The Nyaya Panchayats were established in the District according to the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act 1946 (No. I of 1947). The purpose behind their institution to associate the people with the administration of Justice so that the arrears of work could be expeditiously cleared. In fact they replaced the Nyaya Panchayats constituted under the Central Provinces and Berar, Village Sanitation and Public Management Act, 1920 (No. II of (1920). The Act of 1947 has been replaced by the Madhya Pradesh Panchayats Act 1962 (No. VII of 1962).

There were 26 Nyaya Panchayats in the District in 1962. Every Nyaya Panchayat consists of not less than five members, called the Panchas, elected from amongst the members of the Gram Panchayats forming the Nyaya Panchayat Circle. The Panchas elect from amongst them a Pradhan and an Up-Pradhan who preside over the Panchayat. A secretary is appointed by the concerned Janapad Panchayat. He records the proceedings and decisions of the panchayats.

The Civil and Criminal powers of the Panchayats are described in sections 228,229, and 248 of the M. P. Panchayats Act, 1962. They can entertain civil suits upto the value of Rs. 100 only. On the criminal side, they can try cases under certain sections of I.P.C. and can impose a fine upto Rs. 50. The judgments, decrees and orders of the panchayats are final through the District Judge in civil cases and the sessions Judge in criminal cases are empowered to call for and examine records of a case and modify the panchayat's orders, if necessary. No legal practitioner is allowed to appear before the Nyaya Panchayats.

The number of civil and criminal cases filed for revision from the decisions of Nyaya Panchayats during 1958-64 is tabulated below.

Year	Civil Revisions		Criminal Revisions	
	Pending at the beginnig of the year	Instituted or re-instituted during the year	Pending at the beginning of the year	Instituted or re-instituted during the year
1958	3	12	11	9
1959	14	16	6	12
1960	2	20	4	11
1961	3	3	3	13
1962	2	12	7	4
1963	6	3	21	19
1964	14	5	14	4

Separation of Judiciary from the Executive

It has already been described how the Civil Judiciary of the District was separated from the Executive at the dawn of the present century. But the Criminal Judiciary continued to be one with the Exceutive. Though the necessity of complete separation was felt many a time, nothing could be done till the achievement of Independence. The first step taken in this direction was the appointment of some of the executive officers as Judge Magistrates in 1948. These officers were set apart for whole time magisterial work. This separation was further ensured when the State decided to have a separate class of service named 'Judical Service' in accordance with the provision of Chapter VI of the Constitution of India. Then the District Judges began to be appointed by the Governor in consultation with the High Court, and other posts subordinate to the District Judge, through recruitment by the Public Service Commission according to rules framed by Governor in consultation with the High Court.

A complete separation was, however, effected on Ist January, 1962. Now the Executive Officers exercise magisterial powers only for the prevention of crimes. The collector is thus the District Magistrate; the Deputy Collectors, Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars also enjoy such magisterial powers. But all these officers are 'Executive Magistrates' and are prohibited from exercising powers other than those related to the prevention of crimes. The First Class Civil Judges are appointed as Additional District Magistrates under section 10 (2) of the Code of Criminal Procedure.

The separartion necessitated the opening of more courts in the District. In place of one court of Civil Judge, Ist Class (Narsimhapur) and two courts of Civil Judge, II Class (one each at Gadarwara and Narsimhapur) the District now has one court of Civil Judge, Ist Class and one court of Civil Judge, II Class at Narsimhapur.

There are two courts of Civil Judge II Class at Gadarwara. One of them is presided over by the Civil Judge, I Class of Narsimhapur for a period of 9 to 10 days a month. While the other court is presided over by a whole time Civil Judge II Class who is designated as Additional Civil Judge (II Class).

Present Organization of Courts

The set-up of the courts in the District in December 1963 was as follows.

1. Court of the Additional District and Sessions Judge, Narsimhapur.
2. Court of the Civil Judge, Class I and Additional District Magistrate (Judicial), Narsimhapur.
3. Court of the Civil Judge Class II and Magistrate, First Class, Narsimhapur.
4. Court of the Civil Judge, Class II at Gadarwara.
5. Court of the Additional Civil Judge Class II and Magistrate, First Class, Gadarwara.

Court of the Additional District and Sessions Judge

This court has its permanent seat at Narsimhapur. The jurisdiction of the court extends to Narsimhapur and Hoshangabad Revenue Districts in respect of sessions cases, criminal appeals and criminal revisions transferred to his court by the District and Sessions Judge, Hoshangabad. He is also the appellate authority on decisions of all other magistrates in the District.

His civil powers included regular civil suits above Rs. 10,000 in value, cases under Co-operative Societies Act, above Rs. 10,000, cases under Land Acquisition Act, cases under the Guardian and Ward Act, insolvency cases involving amounts execeding Rs. 10,000, cases under various Special Acts and regular and miscellaneous appeals from decisions of the Civil Judges involving amounts upto Rs. 10,000.

For Narsimhapur Tahsil he is empowered to entertain suits of Small Cause exceeding Rs. 500, but not exceeding Rs. 10,000 in value. All appeals from the decisions of the Additional District Judge lie to the High court.

Court of the Civil Judge, Class I and Additional District Magistrate (Judicial)

This court has its headquarters at Narsimhapur. For Narsimhapur Tahsil he has powers to try suits above Rs. 500, but not exceeding Rs. 10,000 in value, cases under the Co-operative Societies Act upto Rs. 10.000 in value and Civil and Criminal Revisions under the Nyaya Panchayat Act, 1946.

For Gadarwara tahsil he is empowered to try civil suits above Rs. 5000 but not exceeding Rs. 10,000 in value as well as cases under the Co-operptive Societies Act from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 10,000 etc.

In his capacity as Additional District Magistrate he entertains all summary committal cases arising from Narsimhapur and Gadarwara tahsils including the cases registered by Government Railway Police, Gadarwara and cases under section 30 of the Criminal Procedure Code registered by the Police Stations in the above two tahsils, including bail applications in the absence of Judge Magistrates at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara.

Court of the Civil Judge, Class II and Magistrate First Class

The court has its seat at Narsimhapur. As the Civil Court it is empowered to try civil suits upto Rs. 5000 in value.

As Magistrate First Class, he entertains First, Second and Third Class challans, complaints of Police stations, and maintenance cases under section 488 of Cr. P. C. from the ploice stations falling under Narsimhapur Tahsil. In addition he is also empowered to try all criminal cases including bail applications in the absence of the Additional District Magistrate (Judicial) Narsimhapur.

Court of the Civil Judge Class II

The Court has its seat at Gadarwara. He is empowered to hear civil and criminal revisions under the Nyaya Panchayat Act 1946, appeals under the Madhya Pradesh Muncipalities Act, 1951 and suilts triable by Small Causes court upto Rs. 200/- by summary procedure.

Court of the Additional Civil Judge Civil Judge, Class II and Magistrate First Class

The court is stationed at Gadarwara. In civil and criminal matters its jurisdiction extends to Gadarwara Tahsil.

As a civil court it entertains suits of the value ranging from Rs. 100 to Rs. 5000 in value, cases under the Co-operative Societies Act upto Rs. 5000 in value and suits of small cause nature from Rs. 200 to Rs. 1000 by regular procedure.

In the capacity of the Magistrate First Class he is empowered to entertain challans of the First, Second and Third class, and maintenance cases under section 488 of Cr. P. C. arising from different Police Stations of Gadarwara tahsil and all municipal dues recovery cases of Gadarwara Municipal Committee.

NATURE OF CASES HANDLED

The courts in the District handled both civil and criminal cases. The criminal cases mainly related to Indian Penal Code, Special and Local Laws, offences affecting human body, against property, affecting public health, relating to religion, etc.

The civil cases mainly related to suits for money and moveable property, title and other suits, etc.

(a) Criminal Cases Disposed of

Year	Total offences reported	Disposal		Persons convicted under various offences	Sentence passed (Imprisonment)
		No. of cases	No. of persons		
1956	2037	1936	3057	311	58
1957	1938	2116	4088	352	90
1958	2342	2302	3880	126	116
1959	2016	1937	3712	258	104
1960	1740	1790	3608	240	150
1961	1804	1838	3171	243	135
1962	1941	1190	2284		
1963	1546	402	931	289	84
1964	1862	548	3314	510	182

Appendix-A will show details of the criminal cases disposed of and punishments awarded.

(b) Civil Cases Disposed of

The number of suits disposed of by the various courts during the period 1958 to 1964 is tabulated below.—

Year	By District Courts	By Subordinate Courts	By Courts of Small Causes
1958	16	254	405
1959	41	497	448
1960	43	203	373
1961	27	215	361
1962	36	219	309
1963	35	202	251
1964	36	233	375

Classes of Suits

The total number of suits for money and moveable property was 498 in 1962 as against 525 in 1961, 537 in 1960, 517 in 1959 and 417 in 1958. Similarly the total number of title and other suits was 145 in 1958, 229 in 1959, 162 in 1960, 146 in 1961, and 143 in 1962.

The following Table shows the number of pending Civil suits and their disposal.—

Year	Suits pending at the end of the year	Instituted during the year	Revived during the year	Otherwise received during the year	Total for disposal	Disposed of by transfer	Otherwise disposed of	Pending at the close of the year
1958	381	562	24	—	967	—	675	292
1959	292	760	42	127	1221	127	859	235
1960	235	699	20	—	954	—	619	315
1961	335	671	12	—	1018	—	603	415
1962	415	670	7	44	1136	44	520	572
1963	572	587	7	182	1348	181	458	714
1964	714	573	8	53	1348	46	608	694

The Revisional and Appellate Cases instituted during the period 1958 to 1964 were as under.—

Year	Civil Regular Appeals			Miscellaneous Appeals		
	Pending at the beginning of the year	Instituted or re-instituted during the year	Otherwise received during the year	Pending at the beginning of the year	Instituted or re-instituted during the year	Otherwise received during the year
1958	39	44	—	9	13	—
1959	34	68	—	9	17	—
1960	39	29	—	8	28	—
1961	17	27	—	9	11	—
1962	20	20	—	5	4	—
1963	23	13	2	6	6	—
1964	13	8	2	1	3	—

LEGAL PROFESSION AND BAR ASSOCIATIONS

When the Central Provinces were constituted in 1861, the practising Pleaders were the 'native Vakeels and Mookhtars' of the District. Prior to 1862, admission of unauthorized and unlicensed pleaders was never restricted. As most of these pleaders were found to be deficient in professional qualification, it was decided in 1862 that the pleaders should have passed the prescribed tests before they entered the Bar. The restriction thus imposed certainly added to the efficiency of the court, but retarded the expansion of the Bar. In the absence of qualified local pleaders, lawyers from adjacent districts used to appear in the courts of the District. However, local talent appeared on the scene at the beginning of the present century. The decades that followed saw many of the local practising lawyers coming to prominence.

Bar Associations

There are two Bar Associations in the District, one at Narsimhapur and the other at Gadarwara.

The Narsimhapur Bar Association

It has a total strength of 28 members. There is no written Constitution for the Association. A member on admission has to pay an entrance fee of Rs. 25 and a monthly subscription of Rs. 2.

The Bar Association, Gadarwara

The Association came into existence in 1920 with three members. It has a written Constitution. At present there are 12 members in the Bar.

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

The organisational set-up and achievements of some of the Departments in the District are given below.

Sales Tax

The Office of the Sales Tax Officer, Narsimhapur, started functioning from the 15th May, 1961 and exercises jurisdiction over the entire Narsimhapur District. A Sales Tax Officer is in charge of the work and is assisted by one Assistant Sales Tax Officer, and two Sales Tax Inspectors, besides the usual subordinate staff. This office works under the immediate control of the Regional Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax, Jabalpur.

Electricity

The office of the Assistant Engineer, M. P. Electricity Board, Narsimhapur is responsible for distribution, maintenance and new construction works of electricity in the entire District. The District has four distribution centres at Gotegaon, Narsimhapur, Kareli and Gadarwara. These centres are responsible for distribution of power, maintenance of the establishment and collection of electricity charges, each centre being under the control of a Supervisor assisted by ministerial and line staff. An Assistant Engineer with his head-quarters at Narsimhapur, supervises the working of all the centres and works under the immediate control of the Divisional Engineer, Jabalpur.

The first power house in the District was started at Narsimhapur in the beginning of 1955-56 to supply electricity to Narsimhapur town. A diesel power house of the capacity of 714 K.W. was established at Kareli in 1955 and Gadarwara and Narsimhapur were fed by high tension lines. By the end of 1963, electricity was extended to 11 more places, viz., Dhoopgarh, Khatotia, Kareli Basti, Bhugwara, Mohad, Amgaon, Karapgaon, Batesra, Nargi, Kondiya and Bohani. Besides, about 150 pump connections were given for irrigation, mostly for wheat, sugar and fruits. The local Administrations of eight places, viz., Narsimhapur, Kareli, Gadarwara Kondiya, Bohani, Mohad, Amgaon and Karapgaon have taken electricity for street lighting. At Kondiya the Panchayat has been utilising electricity for water works also.

At each of the electrified places flour mills, *dal* mills, oil, mills, saw mills and other small power industries are supplied electricity. The supply of power from the Chambal Hydel Project is expected in the District shortly.

Public Works (Buildings and Roads)

Upto the middle of April, 1963, the District was looked after by a Sub-Divisional Officer. Later, the following three Sub-Divisions were formed to cover the entire District.—

(1) East Narsimhapur Sub-Division.

(2) West Narsimhapur Sub-Division.

(3) Survey Sub-Division.

All these Sub-Divisions were under the administrative control of Satpura Division, Chhindwara upto the 10th January 1965, Thereafter, a new Narsimhapur Division of P.W.D. (B & R) was constituted, to which the above Sub-Divisons were attached.

An Executive Engineer in charge of the Division is assisted by the office staff, Sub-Divisional Officers, Overseers and other field staff. The Division looks after the construction and maintenance of roads, bridges, and culverts, under the Public Works Department (B. & R. Branch), and the Government buildings either through contractors or under the Departmental supervision.

The details of the roads in the District are given in the Chapter on Communications.

Public Works (Irrigation)

There was a Sub-Divisional Officer at Narsimhapur to look after the Minor Irrigation Works, whose jurisdiction exteneded to the whole of Narsimhapur Tahsil and a part of Gadarwara Tahsil. Later, in Feburary, 1960, the office of the Executive Engineer, Tube Wells Division, was established at Narsimhapur under the immediate control of the Superintending Engineer (Irrigation Circle) Hoshangabad.

The Executive Engineer is assisted by two Sub-Divisional Officers posted at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara, besides three others who look after the work outside the District. Each Sub-Divisional Officer is assissted by six Overseers and the usual subordinate staff.

For maintenance of accounts of the Divisional Office, the Accountant-General has deputed a Divisional Accountant, whose position is analogous to a Sub Divisional Officer. In addition, this office has a Technical

Section, consisting of one Draftsman, an Overseer, Assistant Draftsmen and Tracers. The functions of the office are—

(1) to survey, investigate, construct and maintain schemes meant for irrigation, flood control, navigation, hydro electrification, etc. and (2) to supply water for irrigating crops, maintain the accounts and to collect water rate.

Since its inception in February 1960, this sub-Division has constructed 49 Tube Wells and has completed Minor Irrigation Works amounting to Rs. 3½ lakhs in the District.

Forest

Narsimhapur Forest Division was revived after half-a-century, on the 1st December, 1962. The boundaries of the Division are coterminous with the boundaries of Narsimhapur District.

There is a Divisional Forest Officer, at Narsimhapur who is of the rank of a Deputy Conservator of Forests. He is responsible for protection, exploitation, regeneration and maintenance of the forests in the Division. He is assisted by an Assistant Conservator of Forests, 6 Forest Rangers, 7 Deputy Rangers, 18 Foresters and 112 Forest Guards posted at various centres in the Division.

The total area of the forest in this Division is 534.44 sq. miles (1385 sq. km), the same having been divided into four ranges which in turn are further divided into 11 sub-ranges (or Range Assistant Circles) and 77 beats, as shown below.—

Ranges and Range Headquarters	No. of Range Assistant Circles	No. of Beats	Area (Sq. kms.)
Narsimhapur	3	20	328
Gotegaon	3	15	209
Richai (Barman)	3	22	458
Khairi (Salichowka Road)	2	20	384
	11	77	1,389

The Divisional Forest Officer works under the immediate supervision of the Conservator of Forests, Central Circle, Jabalpur.

The achievments of the Department have been described in detail in Chapter I (General) and Chapter IV (Agriculture) in respect of its physical and economic aspects, respectively.

Agriculture

Since May 1965, a Deputy Director of Agriculture has been posted at Narsimhapur to look after the agricultural development in the District. Earlier the District Agricultural Officer, Narsimhapur, was looking after the activities of the Agriculture Department in the District.

The Deputy Director of Agriculture, Narsimhapur, is assisted by four Agriculture Assistants, looking after improved seeds and Government farms, information, marketing, and plant protection. There is also one Assistant Director of Agriculture who helps the Deputy Director in the extension work. The other departmental officials in the District are the two Farm Superintendents who look after the Seed Multiplication Farms at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara, and the six Agricultural Extension Officers attached to the six Blocks in the District.

The soil conservation work in the District is looked after by the two Assistant Soil Conservation Officers posted at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara. Each is assisted by five Soil Conservation Assistants and 20 Surveyors. They are under the administrative supervision of the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Narsimhapur.

The functions and achievements of the Department can be described under the following heads.—

(i) Extension Progromme—This is implemented through Agriculture Extension Officers who look after land development work, by providing irrigation facilities, manures and improved seeds. Eacouragement is given to the cultivation of vegetables, sugarcane and horticulture.

(ii) Machine Tractor Station—The unit has three tractors operated by a Mechanical Assistant, who works under the guidance of an Agricultural Assistant. The District has been provided with two Compressors for boring and deepening work. The Machine Tractor Unit, Narsimhapur, is under the control of the Assistant Agricultural Engineer, Seoni.

(iii) Soil Conservation —The Soil Conservation section has protected the fertile soil by contour-bunding over an area of 10,000 acres during the period of 3 years ending 1963.

(iv) Sugarcane Development— An area about 3,000 acres around Kareli is under the sugarcane crop in a normal year. The Sugarcane Development Scheme envisases supply of fertilizers and seeds of improved varieties of cane.

(v) Plant Protection Scheme — An Agricultural Assistant and four *Kamdars* help the farmers to combat the pests and diseases of crops. The wheat

rust has been completely controlled by the introduction of rust-resistant Hybrid Wheats over 80 per cent of the wheat area in the District.

Farms and Plots — There are two seed multiplication farms of 100 acres each at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara. These are for the multiplication of improved seeds and their distribution in the Development Blocks. A Station Garden has been handed over by the Narsimhapur Municipality to the department, for raising nurseries of fruits and vegetables. The Education Department also maintains a farm at Bahoni, to train the high school students.

In 1959-60 the District was awarded the All India prize of Rs. 10,000 for high *kharif* production. In 1960-61 the District was awarded Rajya Kalash and a prize of Rs. 10,000 for high *rabi* production.

Veterinary and Animal Husbandry

The District Livestock Officer is looking after the activities of the department in the Narsimhapur District. He works under the immediate supervision of the Deputy Director of Veterinary Services, Jabalpur, and under the overall control of the Director of Veterinary Services, Government of Madhya Pradesh Bhopal.

The total livestock population of the District in 1962-63 was 414, 804. In all there are 6 Govt. veterinary hospitals and 25 veterinary dispensaries in the district, in addition to a First-Aid Centre. This works out to one veterinary hospital for every 58,467 animals in the District. Like-wise there is a veterinary dispensary for every 20,000 animals. The hospitals are situated at Narsimhapur Sihora, Gotegaon, Ghawaroatha, Gadarwara, and Salichauka. Each hospital is in charge of a Veterinary Assistant Surgeon, assisted by a Stockman and a Compounder. Mention may be made of a Mobile Veterinary Unit in the District. It is in charge of a Veterinary Assistant Surgeon who is assisted by two stockmen and the usual subordinate staff.

The administration of the various veterinary dispensaries may be classified into three categories. The group of dispensaries of the first category are those purely run by the Government, those belonging to the second order are the ones whose expenditure is divided equally between the department and the local bodies concerned and the remaining dispensaries belonging to the first category are situated at Mungwani, Nayagaon, Bohani, Karpani, Surwari, and Chichli Those of the second order are situated at Shrinagar, Barheta, Sainkheda, Panari and Suatala, while the ones being run by the local bodies are functioning at Amgaon, Dangidhana and Narwara. All the disapensaries are in charge of one Stockman or Compounder each. The first-aid centre is situated at Bansuri.

Besides, the District has four Key Village Centres, where Hariana breeding-bulls are stocked for upgrading the quality of the local cattle. The centres, in charge of a Stockman each, are located at Dateshara, Imaliya, Ditli and Rampura. There are also four Artificial Insemination Centres in the District, located at Gotegaon, Kareli, Gadarwara, and Narsimhapur. In addition to the above, there are eight Cattle Breeding Extension Units, at Dangilbera, Mungwani, Chawaroatha, Sainkheda, Salichauka, Chichli, Suatala and Narwara. The Veterinary Assistant Surgeons working in the dispensaries at the places mentioned above also look after these units.

A Poultry Unit at Gotegaon functions in the charge of a Poultry Supervisor, assisted by a Poultry Attendant.

To check the ingress and spread of infectious diseases among cattles a Cattle Quarantine Station functions at Tendukhera. This Station works under the control of a Veterinary Assistant Surgeon, who is assisted by a stockman.

Fisheries

The office of the Fisheries Inspector was established in the District on 1st January, 1962 in order to stock, breed and supply fish-seeds. The Fisheries Inspector works under the control of the Fisheries Officer, Sagar Division, Sagar.

Co-operation

The work of the Co-operative Department in the District is looked after by an Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, who works under the immediate control of the Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Jabalpur Division. Assistant Registrar is assisted by two Senior Co-operative Inspectors, one Marketing Inspector, two Co-operative Inspectors, two Valuers and ten Sub-Auditors.

Narsimhapur District has six Development Blocks and each Block has a Co-operative Extension Officer to look after its co-operative activities. The main function of the Department is the promotion of Co-operation activities and undertakes registration, amalgamation, cancellation, audit, inspection and liquidation of the co-operative societies.

As a result of the efforts and the people's zeal in this direction, by the end of June 1965, there were 4 Marketing, 16 Better Farming, 15 large Sized, 2 Weavers' Co-operative, 2 Multipurpose Co-operative, 228 Service, 2 Primary Credit, 6 Non-agricultural Credit and 13 Joint Farming Societies registered in the District. All of these were registered. Besides, a Co-operative Central Bank and Land Mortagae Bank are also functioning in the District. There is

one Pilot Project of Joint Farming Societies in the Gotegaon Block where five Joint Farming Societies have been registered and have started working. In addition there are 4 'B' type, 4 'C' type and two rural godowns constructed by the Co-operative Societies.

Economics and Statistics

A District Statistical Office was established at Narsimhapur on the 13th March, 1957 with a District Statistical Officer as its head. He was assisted by a District Statistical Assistant, besides the usual subordinate staff. But the Office was closed on the 30th June, 1961, and the same was merged with the District Statistical Office, Jabalpur. The latter is looking after the work of Narsimhapur District also.

The objective of the Department at the District level is to improve the coverage, accuracy and quantity of statistical data. In addition to the collection of statistics for the Directorate of Economics and Statistics for publication and interpretation, it has also participated in various surveys and scheduled Census Operation.

Weights and Measures

The Office of the Inspector of Weights and Measures was established at Narsimhapur in 1961, with a view to introducing metric weights and measures in the District. There are two Inspectors posted here, one exclusively working in Narsimhapur town, while the other looking after the work in the rest of the District.

The Metric system in weights was introduced in the District from the 1st April, 1960, in length measure from 1st October 1961, and in capacity, from the 1st April, 1962. Through the propaganda and persuasive methods without launching a single prosecution, the Metric system of measures were well established by the end of 1963.

Employment Exchange

The Employment Service came in existence in the Country to meet the situation created by the post-war demobilisation. The Directorate General of Employment and Training was created in July, 1945. This served the demobilised personnel only till 1948. In 1948, it was opened for all categories of workers. On the 1st November, 1956, it was handed over to the State Government.

An Employment Exchange was established at Narsimhapur on the 15th February 1968. Earlier, the Employment Exchange of Jabalpur was catering to the needs of the people of Narsimhapur District also. The Exchange is

headed by an Employment Officer, who works under the control of the Director of Employment and Training, Madhya Pradesh, Jabalpur. The functions of the Department are covered under the following two schemes.

(1) Expansion of Employment Service Scheme (under Five Year Plans) :— Under this scheme the Employment Exchange helps employers in filling their vacancies by suitable applicants and helps applicants in the District in finding suitable employment.

The achievements of the Exchange since its inception, are as follows .—

No. of applicants registered	2,911
No. of placements	29
No, of persons on the Live Register	1,514
No. of employers using the exchange	41

(2) Collection of Employment Market Information Scheme (Non-Plan) — Under this Scheme the Employment Exchange collects quarterly returns of the staff position of establishments, vacancies occurring during the quarter, source filling these vacancies and outstanding vacancies if any. The Scheme covers all the Government and private employers in the District. The findings of this Scheme provide data to study employment market position in the Disctrict.

Labour

Although no officer of the State Labour Department is posted in the Disctrict, the enforcement of various Labour Laws of the State in Narsimhapur District is the responsibility of the Assistant Labour Commissioner, Jabalpur and the Senior Inspector of Factories, Jabalpur. The Senior Inspector of Factories, is responsible for the enforcement of the factories Act, 1948 and the payment of Wages Act, 1936 and to examine complaints and claims under the Workemens' Compensation Act, 1923 while the enforcement of other labour laws, viz., Madhya Praaesh Shops and Establisments Act, 1953, Minimum Wages Act, 1948, Motors Transport Workers Act, 1948, Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961, Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, Madhya Pradesh Industrial Relations Act, 1960 etc is the responsibility of the Assistant Labour Commissioner, who is assisted by Assistant Labour Officers, Labour Inspectors and Labour Sub-Inspectors. Officers of the various categories visit the District as and when required.

The implementation of Labour laws coming in the Central sphere is looked after by the office of the Regional Labour Commissioner (Central) Jabalpur.

Public Health

The Civil Surgeon, Narsimhapur is incharge of medical and public health matters in the District. He is assisted by 18 doctors, of whom nine are of the rank of Assistant Surgeon. Two male Assistant surgeons and one female Assistant Surgeon, are posted at Narsimhapur while the rest are posted at Gadarwara, Sainkhera, Salichauka, Gotegaon, Dhamana and Kareli. In addition to the above doctors, the services of three Homoeopaths and six *Ayurvedic Vaidyas* are also utilised in the District.

In all, there are two hospitals (besides a Police Hospital of Narsimhapur) six Primary Health Centres, three dispensaries, three Homoeopathic dispensaries and six *Ayurvedic* Dispensaries in the District.

Besides, there are two Health Assistants, who are qualified doctors, working in the District. They are posted at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara, respectively, and they tour in their respective tahsils to render medical aid to the people.

There is also an Auxiliary Nurses and Midwives Training Centre attached to the District Hospital, Narsimhapur which trains ten nurses a year.

Education

The educational institutions up to the standard of middle schools in Gadarwara and Narsimhapur tahasils were supervised by the District Inspectors of Schools, Hoshangabad before 1956. The office of the District Educational Officer was opened with the revival of Narsimhapur, District in 1956. The District Educational Officer, Narsimhapur is subordinate to the Divisional Superintendent of Education, Narmada Division, Hoshangabad. The latter is incharge of all higher secondary schools and Basic Training Institutions in the District.

The District Educational Officer is assisted by ten Assistant Inspectors of Schools in the work of inspecting the primary schools in the District. There are six ranges of the Assistant District Inspectors of School with 50 or more schools each. There is also a Lady Assistant Inspectress of Schools in the District, who inspects the girls' primary schools.

The achievements of the Department in the District are remarkable. During the academic session 1956-57, there were 286 primary, 45 Middle and 5 High Schools in the District. By 1962-63, there was an increase of 11.9 per cent in primary, 95.0 percent in Middle and 340 percent in the number of High schools in addition to two Basic Training institutions and 3 Degree Colleges. By the end of March, 1965, there were 2 Degree Colleges. By the end of March 1965, there were 844 Primary, 88 Middle and 22 Higher Secondary

Schools in the District, besides two Basic Training Institutions and three Degree Colleges.

During the same period the number of scholars up to the standard of high school increased by 94.6 per cent. The total number of scholars in 1962-63 was 30,601 in primary, 14,221 in middle and 7,784 in high schools and 351 in the College and 197 in Basic Training Institution. Of this the girl scholars constituted 16,573, i.e., 31.2 per cent of the total.

Panchayats and Social Welfare

A District Panchayat and Welfare Officer is the head of this office in Narsimhapur. He works under the guidance of the Director of Panchayats and Social Welfare, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal.

He is assisted in his work by six Social Education Organisers, six Lady, Social Education Organisers, six Panchayat Extension Officers and 56 Village Assistants. The Village Assistants function as Secretaries to the Gram Panchayats. In addition, there are 170 part-time Secretaries of Gram Panchayats.

The Department supervises, inspects and guides the Panchayats and help the promotion and organisation of various social education activities in the District. Such activities include the running of Adult Literacy Classes, maintenance of Circulating Libraries and Rural Listening Centres and organising film-shows and Kala Pathak programmes to disseminate information about the Plan activities and ideals of civic life.

Since the establishment of the Development Blocks, the activities of the Department are conducted through the agency of the Block Development Officers. Apart from the supervision and guidance to the village panchayats, the Department has organised several camps for the training of village leaders and Panchas. It has also given grants-in-aid to the tune of Rs. 2,900.00 to Social Welfare institutions and Rs. 1,830.00 to the Village Panchayats for the construction of Gram Panchayat Bhawans and other petty constructions. However, in any individual case, the grant is not allowed to exceed 5 per cent of the land revenue of the village.

Among the achievements of the Department, mention may be made of the first rural stadium of its kind built at Manegaon village, in memory of of Rudra Pratap, a freedom fighter of the place, who laid down his life in 1945, while in detention. The Stadium was built at a cost of Rs. 35,000.00, partly met by the peoples' contribution and partly by a grant from the Government.

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

No definite references about any institution of antiquity like *Samha*, *Gana*, *Sreni*, *Sabha*, *Samiti*, etc., to which the modern popular Government and the Local bodies owe their heritage are traceable in the District. Even so, it is not unreasonable to conclude that the corporate bodies in the shape of village communities, were, like the rest of the Country, in existence in the District in the ancient and mediaeval period. These village communities, with their full municipal vigour, acted as little republics and actually helped to preserve the civilization and culture of the race in the teeth of the disintegrating tendencies. The existence of the village communities was also admitted by Mr. Crosthwaite while speaking on the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Bill in 1883. "Although there is little trace in the Central Provinces of those complicated village communities which still thrive in Northern India, yet the system of village management was, until a comparatively recent date, complete."

But with the advent of the British the State became the sole master of the society and completely deprived the latter of its independent entity. In course of time, Local governing bodies were established all over the Country, but those were essentially creations of the Central Government, and fashioned after the Western moulds. In Narsimhapur the introduction of Local self-government began with the establishment of municipalities in Narsimhapur and Gadarwara in 1867, following the publication of the Royal Army Sanitation Commission Report and a subsequent municipal Act.[1] Of course, these municipal committees were not constituted upon a sound and systematic policy and the sole municipal activity consisted of works constructed from Local funds.[2] In 1868[3] franchise was introduced and two-thirds of the members of each committee were elected by the local tax payers who could render it impossible (if they so wished) for the official members to carry out any proposal or impose any form of taxation without people's consent. Lord Mayo's Government emphasized in 1870 the principle of developing

1. Report of the Urban Local Self-Government Committee, 1957, p. 10.
2. C. P. Administration Report, 1867-68, p. 39.
3. Ibid., 1872-73, p. 76.

Local bodies as training agencies of self-government. Accordingly the first Municipal Act in this Province was enacted in 1873. It divided the municipal area into constituent wards and laid down that not less than two-fifths of the members should be non-officials. In that period police duty was included in the schedule of municipal functions in addition to sanitation, water supply and education.

In 1882 Lord Ripon's resolution admitted that Local self governing institutions were instruments in political education for the rapidly growing public spirited intelligent class, and firmly advocated widening the scope of Local Self-Government and minimization of direct Government control. It marked a definite advance towards decentralization in as much as it sought to increase the elected element within the municipal committees and extend the scope of Local bodies to rural areas. It went so far as to lay down that "the smallest administrative unit the sub-division, the taluq or tahsil-should ordinarily form the maximum area to be placed under a local board."[1] These progressive ideas and liberal principles were not liked by the Provincial Governments, as they were thought to be in advance of time and detrimental to the financial interesip of the foreign administrators. Novertheless, on the basis of this classical resolution the Act of 1883 was passed, leading to the establishment of a Local Board for each group of circles (an aggregate of villages) and a District Council for each district. In its wake the Local Boards at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara and the District Council at Narsimhapur were formed. Both the District Council and Local Boards had three categories of members, elected, nominated and representing the mercantile class. These bodies worked through committees, viz., finance committee, school committee, joint committee of more than two Local bodies and special adhoc committee.

In the sphere of urban administration the Municipal Act of 1889 was passed, reconstituting the existing municipalities. Subsequently,[2] in two Resolutions of 1896 and 1897, Lord Elgin's Government proposed further measures of progress in Local administration. The Act of 1889 was replaced by a similar Act of 1903 (Act XVI of 1903).

In 1907-1908 the Royal Commission of Decentralization recommended that the village should be the basic unit of local democracy, with an elective panchayat for every village. It aimed at developing the corporate life from the bottom. But till 1915 these recommendations were not translated into action. In 1918 the Government of India laid down the broad pattern upon which the Local Government was to move in order to achieve complete Local Self-Government. The Montford Report suggested certain reforms for

1. Avasthy, Local Self-Government in Madhya Pradesh, p. 102.
2. Government of India Resolution No. 1/146164, dated 24th October, 1896, and No. 18-37, dated the 20th August, 1897.

further democratization of muncipal bodies. Then came the Government of India Act of 1919 which transferred the Local Self Government to the control of popular ministers. The principles enunciated in these enactments and resolutions were accepted by the Government of the Central Provinces and Berar and embodied in the Local Self-Government Act of 1920, Municipalities Act of 1922 and the Panchayat Act of 1920. The former was implemented in 1922 and the latter in July, 1923. During the Reform period, (1919 to 1935) two parallel administrative organisations functioned side by side and the Local Self-Government actually deteriorated for want of guidance, expert advice, assistance and active co-operation from the district officers.

In order to place the entire system of Local Self-Government on a sounder basis the popular ministry which came into existence in 1937 under the Act of 1935, examined its problems in all its aspects. But before it could introduce any legislation it had to resign. Subsequently, several amendments were introduced in the existing Acts which sought to eliminate the official and nominated elements in the Local bodies and widen the franchise to make them more representative in character. The Central Provinces and Berar Panchayat Act of 1946 was passed during this period, which renovated the old system.

After Independenece the Local Self-Government came into the lime light and legislations leading to far reaching fundamental changes were enacted. One of these was the Janapada Act of 1948, according to which the district Council and the two Local Boards in the District Narsimhapur were abolished and two Janapada Sabhas with wider scope power were established in the two tahsils. In 1956, when the new Madhya Pradesh was formed the multiplicity laws governing the Local bodies of the four consitituent units posed a serious problem. On the recommendation of the Urban and Rural Local Self-Government Committees, which were appointed mainly to effect uniformity in the existing heterogeneity the Madhya Pradesh Municipalities Act of 1961 Madhya Pradesh Panchayat Act of 1962 were passed. The former was implemented in Narsimhapur District in 1962.

The extensive net-work of Local bodies, which is functioning at present in the District may be classified as follows :—

1. Municipal Boards for localised urban areas,

2. Janapada Sabhas, extending their jurisdiction over both urban and rural areas, and

3. Panchayats, covering the entire rural tract.

Municipalities

Local Self-Government, as a conscious process of administration through Municipal Boards dated in this District back to 1867, when the Punjab Municipal Committees Act was extended to 78 towns of the Central Provinces and Municipal Councils were formed at Narsimhapur, Gadarwara, Kauria and Tendukhera. The last two councils were premature and like many other smaller towns, Kauria and Tendukhera were soon deprived of their tiny municipalities. Following Lord Mayo's Resolution of 1870, which advised the Provincial Governments to encourage more and more popular participation in Local administration, the first Municipal Act (Act II 1873) of the Province was passed in 1873.[1] It brought under its regulation all the municipalities in the District. It laid down that not less than two-fifths of the total number of councillors should be non-officials, elected directly by the local tax-payers and adult householders. For the purpose of triennial election the municipal area divided into wards or circles and one or two members were elected from each. Many additional important duties were entrusted to the Municipal Commitees, which were hitherto functioning only for sanitation and water supply. The financial resources permissible under this legislation were, in addition to Government grants, octroi, house tax and license fee. In 1877 Chhota Chhindwara established its own Municipal Board, bringing the total number of such institutions to five for this considerably small District, with an area of only 1916 Sq. miles. It is known from the annual administrative reports that, by 1879-80 the elected members were fairly representative of their constituencies.[2] At the same time the elected municipal commissioners took ample initiative to start projects for the material improvement of their towns. As for example at Gadarwara the Committee raised Rs. 4000 by subscription for the construction of a new bath--ing ghat at the Narmada. The Government admitted that "The members of Municipal Committee in some parts of the Province have learned to take great interest in their work. This is especially the case with some of the Committees of the Nerbudda Division. The members undertake the supervision of various departments of work.[3]" In 1881-82 the municipalities were relieved of police charges. This left a large sum at their disposals to spend on their essential functions like conservancy, cleansing, management of sanitary and charitable establishments, education, water supply, public works, lighting and watering of roads, and drainage works. The municipal committees of that period were normally presided over by Deputy Commissioners.

Inspired mainly by this resolution the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces issued a circular in April, 1883, directing that municipalities should

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1872-73, p. 77.
2. Ibid, 1879-80, p. XVIII.
3. Ibid, 1881-82, p. XI.

hence forth consist of elected and nominated members only, the appointment of ex-officio members being discontinued. He also directed that the nominated members were not to exceed one-third of the whole committee and that the committees were to choose their own presidents and vice-presidents.[1] At the close of the year municipalities at the headquarters of districts and Sub-Divisions were given larger financial powers in expenditure. In 1885, a property qualification (in most cases the payment of Pandhri Tax or Government revenue assessed upon land) was introduced for the privilage of voting. By the end of that year larger financial powers, in the matter of making appointments and undertaking public works and incurring contingent expenditure were given to those institutions.

In 1885-86 the small municipalities at Tendukhera and Kauria were abolished but Kareliganj, a small towns of only 502 persons established its own civic committee. From 1888 the proposal to transfer the management of schools within municipal area under the control of municipalities was pressed forward. During 1892-93 the Municipality of Kareliganj was withdrawn from the operation of the Municipal Act and brought under the purview of the Village Sanitation Act because enquiry had revealed that its income had been permanently affected by the opening of railways.

The Municipal Act of 1903 which replaced that of 1889 introduced the principle of retirement of members by rotation and provided for the establishment of notified area. Meanwhile, the Decentralization Commission of 1907, recommended that the urban areas should retain their municipalities with a substantial elected majority. Till 1915 the recommendations of the Commission were not complied with. To afford some relief from the financial stringency in 1916-17 terminal tax was allowed to be introduced in Narsimhapur and the question of the levy of a special education cess came under the active consideration of the Government.

In the same year the system of rotation of councillors was done away with; in its place the old principle of triennial election was reintroduced. Next, came in quick succession theGovernment of India Resolution of 1918 and the Government of India Act of 1919, inunciating the principle that "there should be as far as possible complete popular control in local bodies and the largest posible inpependence for them from outside control." These progressive ideas were embodied in the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act of 1922, which was brought into effect from the 1st July, 1923. It extended the right of municipal franchise to all persons whose monthly income was not less than Rs. 10. Moreover the new Act sought to expand the scope and importance of the duties of these local bodies, which were too dependent upon Government and too limited in the duties entrusted to them.

1. Ibid, 1883-84, pp. VII-IX.

From July, 1922 onwards and till the implementation of the Madhya Pradesh Municipalities Act of 1961 all the municipalities, including Kareli which was Notified Area for some years in the District showed slow but steady progress. This would be evident from the following Table :—

	Narsimhapur				Gadarwara			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	1901	1924	1945	1960	1901	1924	1945	1960
Population	11,233	9,839	12,269	14,316	3,198	8,539	12,908	12,744
Elected Member	12	6	8	15	8	12	12	13
Selected Member	x	x	4	3	x	x	4	4
Nominated and Ex-officio Member	4	2	4	x	4	4	2	2
Expenditure	15,000	31,763	38,192	1,01,582	19,000	43,528	68,946	2,23,536
(Rs.)	15,000	26,297	47,160	96,898	19,000	37,971	69,854	2,36,789

	Chhota Chhindwara				Kareliganj (Notified Area Committee till 1949)		
1.	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
	1901	1924	1945	1960	1924	1945	1960
Population	4,216	3,836	10,146	5,663	2,170	2,992	4,413
Elected Member	6	8	8	10			x
Selected Member	x	x	2	4			10
Nominated and Ex-officio Member	2	4	3	x			3
Expenditure	4,400	18,947	23,739	88,556	9,737	22,744	1,19,250
(Rs.)	4,400	12,218	27,465	1,04,340	7,858	16,734	1,21,104

In 1956 the new Madhya Pradesh was formed. Provisions of laws differed basically in the four constituent regions in regard to municipal constitution, functions, measure of Government control and grant-in-aid. Accordingly, a committee (Urban Local Self-Government Committee) was appointed in 1957 to investigate into the whole question and to suggest modifications for achieving an overall uniformity. On the reccommendation of this Committee the Madhya Pradesh Municipalities Act of 1961 was passed and implemented in all the municipalities in 1962. Some of the main changes introduced by this new Act are.—

1. Municipalities, which had hitherto been grouped on income basis into six categories, have now been grouped into four categories on population basis :—

Class I with a population exceeding 50,000

Class II with a population between 20,000—50,000

Class III between 10,000 to 20,000 and

Class IV with a population not exceeding 10,000

2. Among the selected councillors numbering not more than one-fourth of the total strength, one seat has been reserved for a woman, to be selected by the elected members from the whole body of the electors.

3. The term of the committee and the tenure of office of the councillors has been extented from three years to four years.

4. Every committee has been empowered to constitute out of its own body such executive sub committees as Finance, Public Works, Public Health and Education.

5. After every election each committee has to elect its President from amongst the electors and two Vice Presidents and Junior Vice President from among the councillors for a term of two years.

Section 29 of the 1961 Act has empowered the State Government to determine the total number of councillors for each municipality; to divide the municpal area into wards and define their limits and membership; to fix the number of reserved seats for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and allot them to various wards from time to time.

The following Table would give an idea of the growth of civic population and extension of jurisdiction of the four municipalities in the District in the last decade.

Name of the Muni-cipality	1951			1961		
	Population	Area (Sq. kms.)	No. of Wards	Population	Area (Sq. kms.)	No. of Wards
Narsimhapur	14,316	5.173	15	17,940	14.71	15
Gadarwara	12,744	2.586	11	14,696	7.759	12
Chhota Chhindwara	5,663	2.586	8	7,757	6.673	9
Kareliganj	4,413	2.586	8	8,603	20.822	10

At present there are four municipalities in the whole District namely Narsimhapur, Gadarwara, Chhota Chhindwara and Kareli, A brief account of these municipalities is given below.

Narsimhapur

The Municipality at Narsimhapur was established in 1867, (vide notification no. 337, dated 17th May 1867) under the Punjab Municipal Committees Act XV of 1867.[1] Subsequently it was reconstituted according to the provisions of the Central Provinces Municipal Acts of 1873, 1889, 1903 and 1922 at different stages. When the Municipality was first established in the town, the population within its limit was 7,544. Two-thirds of the member were elected by the people while the rest were taken as ex-officio and nominated members. In 1901 the Narsimhapur Municipality was having 12 elected and 4 nominated and ex-officio members. The provision for selected members was introduced only in 1923, after the implemention of the Act of 1922.

At present the Committee consists of 15 elected and 3 selected councillors, including the President, elected by adult franchise and Vice-Presidents, appointed by the President. Out of these seats one is reserved for the Scheduled Castes. By a circular issued in April, 1962, the Local Self-Government, Urban Department, has fixed provisionally the number of elected and selected councillors for the Narsimhapur Municipality to 14 and 3, respectively. By the same notification the Municipality, which had hitherto been grouped in class V, has been declared as class III. The Municipality performs its main, compulsory and optional duties through various sub-committees.

From 1940 onwards the Municipality is managing a number of primary schools. Thus during 1940-41 there were three schools; the number increased to four, five and six in 1959, 1960 and 1961, respectively. Duing 1960-61 its expenditure on education was Rs. 33,867 while students enrolled were 1495. During 1962-64 it has spent Rs. 40,000 over the construction of a school building for girls.

The Narsimhapur Municipality is providing ample amenities to the civic population like any other municipal committee. The following Table would give an idea of its essential functions with income and expenditure.

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1. Memorandum on the Development of Local Self-Government Bodies in the Central Provinces and Berar, (1928-29), Part I,p. 1, (vide Notification No. 337, dated 17th May, 1867.)

Municipality of Narsimhapur, Statement of Income and Expenditure

(In Rs.)

Year	Total		Total Expenditure				
	Income	Expenditure	Water Supply	Public Health	Public Works	Street Lighting	Education
1947-48	70,566	60,514	295	22,904	1,498	2,419	17,669
1948-49	65,631	67,858	395	28,648	5,066	3,614	15,710
1949-50	80,764	71,156	573	29,516	2,735	3,440	15,723
1950-51	70,132	83,021	294	31,738	2,130	2,845	29,183
1951-52	79,740	78,589	154	34,105	2,364	3,663	18,415
1952-53	79,910	80,369	3,771	33,168	2,069	4,423	20,013
1953-54	82,058	83,735	4,221	36,267	1,207	4,475	20,067
1954-55	85,337	88,632	981	33,323	2,615	4,383	20,383
1955-56	81,153	87,680	211	32,882	3,846	5,811	19,230
1956-57	84,487	87,421	50	30,656	2,106	10,172	23,112
1957-58	83,017	82,584	Nil	32,585	1,008	7,531	22,359
1958-59	89,667	87,702	1,009	31,309	5,790	11,368	25,176
1959-60	1,01,582	96,898	24	32,073	4,497	13,745	26,234
1960-61	1,15,153	1,13,302	—	34,952	8,593	13,624	33,867
1961-62	1,67,293	1,67,293	—	44,933	—	10,710	51,975
1962-63	2,12,548	2,12,548	—	47,829	—	11,625	86,033
1963-64	1,97,950	1,97,950	—	57,348	—	10,905	41,622
1964-65	1,76,609	1,76,609	—	74,665	—	14,613	24,410

There is no provision for water supply through pipes but the Committee has made satisfactory arrangements for supply of pure water within the urban area of Narsimhapur. During 1958-59 it received a Government grant of Rs. 1,000 for removing temporary water scarcity. There is no underground drainage system. The sewage is disposed of by carts. The Municipality has constructed five public latrines. The town area is well lighted with electricity and the committee spends a good sum on street lighting. It also maintains a well-equipped Fire Brigade.

Gadarwara

The Municipal Council of Gadarwara is the oldest in the District. It was established under the Punjab Municipal Committee Act of 1867, on 1st April, 1867 a few days before the formation of the Narsimhapur Municipality. At the time of its inception the town was populated with nearly 8,800 persons who elected two-thirds members to the Council, while the remaining

seats were filled by ex-officio and nominated members. During 1901 the population decreased to 8,198 persons and the council was composed of 8 elected and four nominated members. In 1924-25, there were 1 elected non-official Chairman and 12 members. Of the latter 8 were elected and 4 nominated. In 1926-27, when the Municipality was reconstituted under the Act of 1922 the total number of members remained the same but an element of selection was introduced in the Council. Therefore it had nine elected 2 nominated and one selected (or co-opted) member who was elected by the councillors. By 1935 the number of selected members increased to 2, bringing the total number to 13. During the same year population of the Municipality was 9,097. In 1945, however, with the growth of population to 10,146 the total number of councillors increased to 18, with 2 ex-officio, 12 elected and 4 selected members. In 1952 there were 11 elected, 3 selected and 2 nominated members, while in 1958 the corresponding figures were 12, 4 and 2. One seat was reserved for a Scheduled Caste selected member. During the decade the Municipality had jurisdictions over 1 Sq. mile and 12,744 persons, distributed over 11 wards. The Census Report of 1961 has registered a marked increase in population as well as in urban area under the Gadarwara Municipality Now it has a population of 14,696 and an area of 3 sq. miles divided into 12 wards. According to the provisions of the Act of 1961 the Municipality has been upgraded to class III from its status as class IV and the total number of councillors had been provisionally fixed as 15, including 12 elected and 3 selected. Seats have been reserved for Harijan and woman members.

Like any other municipality the primary functions of the Gadarwara Municipal Council consist of proper maintenance of sanitation within the town; disposal of refuse and night-soil, construction of buildings, supplying of drinking water, maintenance of fire extinguishing equipments, and management of education. Gadarwara civic body can justly claim acclamation for its achievements in administering education upto the collegiaite standard. Since 1962 it has been running a degree college. On 30th June, 1959 it handed over charge of all the middle and high schools, under its care to the State Government. Four primary schools with an enrollment of about 1,500 students, are still managed by the Municipality. Similarly, the Government has taken over charge of one civil dispensary from the municipal authorities, but one veterinary dispensary has been left under its management.

There is no provision for piped water supply in Gadarwara. It is still drawn from public wells by hand pumps or from the Narmada itself. The Municipality, however, has a plan to start its own water works. Neither it has its own electric power house. Electricity is supplied to the town from a power-house, located at Kareli, about 18 miles away from Gadarwara. The number of street lights in the town is 355. The Municipality also provided for public latrines and one urinal for public convenience. There is however no

underground clearance or sewage system. During the last ten years a few concrete roads measuring about three miles have been constructed by the Municipality. Two public parks have also been laid. Five octroi posts with residential quarters for its employees have been constructed recently. The Table below gives an idea of total Expenditure and Expenditure on a number of other items.

Municipality of Gadarwara, Statement of Income and Expenditure

(In Rs.)

Year	Total		Total Expenditure					
	Income	Expenditure	Public Health	Public Works	Veterinary	Street Lighting	Education	Water Supply
1949-50	1.14,677	1,18,721	42,190	14,893	Nil	1,921	53,641	Nil
1950-51	1,34,396	1,37,085	32,639	9,898	Nil	2,272	59,832	„
1951-52	1,34,284	1,33,950	32,173	3.579	Nil	2,063	60,847	„
1952-53	1,25,993	1,31,400	34,031	12,872	120	2,753	63,511	„
1953-54	1,48,588	1,48,162	33,105	8,102	9	3,441	62,459	„
1954-55	1,85,730	1,77,904	49,399	27,876	1,339	4,422	74,564	„
1955-56	1,96,261	1,98,833	46,629	27,987	1,133	2,559	74,621	„
1956-57	2,05,742	2,12,517	41,475	17,463	1,686	9,429	32,577	„
1957-58	2,32,732	2,20,777	45,517	5,112	2,229	9,789	90,761	„
1958-59	2,53,468	2,49,057	39,400	15,716	2,823	.2,712	1,29,511	„
1959-60	2,23,586	2,36,789	40,774	44,683	2,428	13,839[1]	1,06,779	3,956
1960-61	2,38,072	2,23,455	39,362	30,000	3,018	13,309	57,506	2,620
1961-62	2,53,399	2,53,595	63,705	18,000	3,389	15,141	55,000	866
1962-63	7,86,487	7,43,313	56,195	11,000	2,489	16,172	92,000	1,315
1963-64	5,43,133	5,02,152	71,369	—	4,469	15,872	41,000	1,056
1964-65	6,27,382	7,04,812	63,786	33,000	3,363	22,113	52,625	

Chhota Chhindwara (Gotegaon)

This Municipality was constituted in 1877, under the first Municipal Act of the Central Provinces. of i. e. Act. XI of 1873.[1] According to the Census Report the population of Chhota Chhindwara was only 2,211 in 1871, it increased to

1. Vide Notification No. 1544, dated 25th April, 1877.

3,814 in 1891 and 4,216 in 1901, but decreased to 3,404 in 1911. It again increased to 5663 in 1951 and to 7,757 in 1961. The Munipality has an area of 258 Sq. miles (6.68 kilometre) distributed over nine wards.

As usual, the earlier municipal committees were dominated by ex-officio and nominated councillors, but by 1901 there were 6 elected and only 2 nominated members. During 1924-25, Chhota Chhindwara was having 6 elected, 3 nominated and 1 ex officio councillors, in addition to 1 non-official Chairman. In 1926-27 the Committee was formed, according to the provision of the Act of 1922, with 6 elected, 2 nominated, one ex-offico and 2 selected members. Particulars as to the Chairman remained the same. Till 1935 there was no change in the constitution of the Municipality. Afterwards the number of ex-officio members was increased by 2 and by 1945 there were 8 elected members, out of a total number of thirteen. In 1963 the Committee consisted of 1 President, elected by the whole of Municipal electorate, 2 Vice-Presidents appointed by the President from the above body, 10 elected and 4 selected members chosen by the elected councillors to 10 (8 elected 2 selected), when it would be constituted under the Act of 1961.

During 1891-92 the Municipality earned a total income of Rs.4,660, out of which Rs. 812 were collected from house tax, Rs. 310 from pounds, 1,470 from cattle registration and Rs. 2,068 from other sources including contribution from Local funds. Its expenditure in that year came to about Rs. 3,892 including Rs. 1,124 on conservancy, Rs. 493 on medical and vaccination, Rs. 1,184 on roads, Rs.466 on education. During the first decade of the present century the bulk of income, as before, was derived from house tax and fees, as registration of cattle; and spent mostly on conservancy and education. Total income increased to Rs. 8,228 in 1922-23 and to Rs. 19,081 in 1944-45.

The Secretary or the Chief Municipal Officer is the executive head of the Committee. His duties have been defined by various Municipal Acts and Bye-laws. The Munipality is a class IV civic body. It has not so far been able to provide amenities like piped water supply, underground drainage system, etc. to the tax-payers. Water is obtained from wells and sewage is disposed of by carts to the compost ground. There are two public laterines under its management. The town is supplied with electricity from a power house at Kareli. It runs four primary schools attended by about 722 students. Total income and expenditure of the Municipality as also expenditure figures on public works, water supply, public health, education, street lighting and veterinary from the year 1949 onwards are given below.

Municipality of Chhota Chhindwara, Statement of Income and Expenditure

(In Rs.)

Years	Total		Total Expenditure					
	Income	Expenditure	Public Health	Public Works	Veterinary	Street Lighting	Education	Water Supply
1949-50	42,593	36,640	12,956	1,059	Nil	1,007	13,957	127
1950-51	49,527	44,378	14,449	3,782	Nil	1,501	15,795	652
1951-52	60,709	48,556	16,654	4,058	Nil	1,651	19,407	119
1952-53	63,875	76,881	15,361	8,074	Nil	2,252	43,300	990
1953-54	72,983	80,497	16,102	2,242	Nil	1,836	51,690	286
1954-55	65,561	65,407	16,970	2,936	Nil	2,044	37,006	79
1955-56	93,216	79,452	17,277	3,837	169	1,953	48,345	115
1956-57	72,217	79,509	16,032	3,668	855	1,886	47,643	871
1957-58	88,668	93,178	20,463	Nil	1,209	2,402	53,349	93
1958-59	89,003	86,177	15,907	99	1,187	2,545	58,567	506
1959-60	88,556	1,04,340	13,563	33	323	3,606	77,143	126
1960-61	72,907	65,429	15,103	5,756	50	4,529	27,976	210
1961-62	63,153	67,332	14,957	8,098	Nil	4,785	25,999	1,143
1962-63	84,399	87,761	28,099	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	41,042	N.A.
1963-64	1,02,343	1,02,839	47,877				47,870	N.A.
1964-65	76,790	73,113	37,771				37,711	N.A.

Kareliganj

Kareliganj, which has an area of 8.05 miles (12.56 kms) and a population of 8,603 according to the Census of 1961 had its first Municipality in 1885. At that time it had a population of 502 persons. In the year 1892-93 the civic body was abolished and in its place the Village Sanitation Act was enforced in the town area. During 1924-25 a Notified Area Committee was established for the town with a population of 2,170 people. In the year 1949 this Committee was upgraded into a fullfledged Municipality for a population of about 4,413, inhabiting an area of one sq mile divided into eight wards.

At present, the Municipal area is divided into 10 wards. Under the Act of 1961 the Kareli Municipal Committee has been placed in Class IV; Formerly it was grouped in class VI. At present the strength of the members of the Committee is 16, including 1 President, 2 Vice-Presidents, 10 elected members and 3 selected members. Under the 1961 Act, it has 9 elected and 2 selected Councillors, in addition to 1 President and 2 Vice-Presidents. In the existing Council no seat has been kept reserved for Scheduled Castes,

Scheduled Tribes or women members, but provisions have been made for special representatives in the new Act.

The Municipality carries out its various activities through its five sub-committees. The town has an electric power station which supplies power to nearby towns like Gadarwara, Chhota Chhindwara, etc. There is no underground drainage or sewage system. A Master Plan for the town has been prepared by the Chief Town Planner of Madhya Pradesh. Wells are the only source of water supply. Sewage is disposed of in trenching ground where compost manure is prepared. One primary and one higher secondary school with 508 and 794 students, respectively, (during 1960-61) are run by the Municipality. It handed over charge of the municipal dispensary to the State Government in 1958-59.

Total income and expenditure of the Municipal Committee and the main items of expenditure during the last few years are given in the following Table.

Municipality of Kareliganj, Statement of Income and Expenditure

(In Rs.)

Years	Total		Total Expenditure				
	Income	Expenditure	Public health	Public works	Street lighting	Education	Water supply
1949-50	58,374	56,645	10,587	941	2,433	27,290	950
1950-51	61,627	66,254	9,693	2,439	1,762	31,558	338
1951-52	76,760	77,792	12,885	1,300	3,442	38,837	798
1952-53	76,112	79,484	15,100	...	3,547	39,317	682
1953-54	84,912	83,000	18,665	...	2,847	39,274	592
1954-55	1,00,958	89,596	18,026	3,143	2,298	38,155	570
1955-56	1,31,372	1,17,232	21,261	10,281	1,382	43,749	1,349
1956-57	1,11,885	1,26,532	20,024	14,271	6,929	43,160	1,988
1957-58	1,49,503	1,33,183	20,407	9,747	5,827	52,455	1,155
1958-59	1,44,155	1,58,302	21,774	17,933	6,572	66,246	1,407
1959-60	1,19,250	1,28,104	17,139	7,359	5,649	62,821	442
1960-61	1,2,1103	1,10,433	18,386	335	5,557	58,893	689
1961-62	1,03,330	1,11,192	N.A.	N.A.	6,306	N.A.	—
1962-63	1,11,901	84,405	N.A.	N.A.	6,255	N.A.	—
1963-64	1,54,597	1,54,597	16,229	24,882	8,532	15,340	—
1964-65	1,40,968	1,40,968	18,380	21,237	7,607	4,095	—

Note.— Figures under Col. 6 for 1963-64 and 1964-65 are inclusive of water supply.

District Council and Local Boards

Local Self-Government Institutions, which had jurisdiction extending over both the rural and urban areas of the District before the establishment of the Janapada Sabhas, were the District Council of Narsimhapur and the Local Boards of Narsimhapur and Gadarwara. All these three came simultaneously into existence on 1st July, 1884,[1] (vide notification No. 3368, dated 11th July 1884) under the Central Provinces Local Self Government Act of 1883, which itself was based upon Lord Ripon's famous Resolution 1882. These self governing bodies were expected to create a spirit of co-operation between the public and the Government and to entrust upon the representatives of the people with those minor details of administration of which the Government officers could be relieved with advantage. Before the Act of 1883, there existed a number of committee in each district to look-after various local matters, *viz.*, District Committee, School Committee, Dispensary Committee, etc.

According to the provision of the Act the area of jurisdiction under the Local Boards of Narsimhapur and Gadarwara coincided with the area of the respective tahsils, while that of the District Council of Narsimhapur extended over the whole revenue District. The area comprised in Local Board was divided into a convenient number of circles. A Board consisted of three categories of member-(i) non-official members contributing 2/3rd of the whole strength, whole strength, who were representative *mukaddams* (headmen of the village) chosen by the residential landowners of the village of the circles which the formmer represented. (ii) Members repesenting mercantile classes or professions and (iii) membes nominated by the Chief Commissioner not exceeding 1/3rd of the total strength.

The District Council was composed of members, both non-official and official. Of the non-official members, about half were elected by and from the two Local Boards to represent them in the District Council. Others were representatives of the mercantile and professional classes, and members nominated by the Government. Each Local Board elected its Chairman for one financial year from amongst its members with approval from the Divisional Commissioner. The Chairman of the District Council was elected under the same process, but in his case the approval from the Chief Commissioner was needed. A Government servant could hold the office of the Chairman or Vice Chairman "If his election is made at a special meeting convened solely for the purpose of selecting him and no other person, supported by a majority of two-thirds of the members present at the meeting and sanctioned by the Local Government."[2] These elected Chairmen did not ordinarly possess the ex-

1. The Central Provinces District Council Manual, 1932, p. 45.
2. C. P. Administration Report, 1931-32, pp. 40-41.

ecutive power which was vested in the Secretary who was ordinarily a nominee of the Commissioner.

The District Council and the Local Boards functioned through various committees, provided for them by the Act of 1883. There were Finance Committee, School Committee, Joint Committee of two or more Local bodies and committees formed by the Council from time to time for some specific purpose. The District Council and Local Boards of Narsimhapur were mainly concerned with the construction, repair and maintenance of roads (and other means of communication), up-keep and proper management of rural schools management of cattle pounds, the grant of funds for hospitals, dispensaries and vaccination and the execution of sanitary works. The execution of all public works of importance was under the of Public Works Department, only repair and minor works being entrusted to the District Council.

Under the Act of 1883 the District Council had no power of taxation, but for the maintenance of roads or schools it received the proceeds of all local rates, levied in accordance with the settlement records. Its fund was to be augmented by receipts from cattle-pounds, ferries and contributions from Provincial funds, and supplemented by a large grant from the Government of India for expenditure on education. Main items of expenditure were education, medical (dispensary, conservancy and sanitation) cattle pounds and public works. During 1901-1902 about 5 per cent of the total income of the District Council was spent on general administration, 9 per cent on medical and 34 per-cent on civil works. Afterwards dak-cess was transferred to the District fund. According to the provision of the Act neither of the Local Boards at Narsimhapur or Gadarwara had any independent source of income. They were completely dependent on the allotments from the District Council. They could not incur any expense beyond the limit imposed by the superior body. In fact each Local Board acted as an agent of the District Council which had the right to enforce the performance of duties entrusted to it. Moreover, it had to submit annually, to the District Council, a report of its proceedings and an account of its receipts and expenditure for the past year. The District Council could reverse any resolution of the Local Boards by a majority vote of two-thirds members. This complete dependence of the Local Boards upon the District Council helped the latter to retain all control with it and thus impair the utility of the former bodies. Steps were taken only in 1905-06 to place definite funds at the disposal of the Local Boards which were entrusted with wider power and control.

Under the Act, the Deputy Commissioner had the power to examine all proceedings of these local bodies, to inspect any of their properties or to call for any document, statement of account or report. He could even suspend the execution of any order or resolution of the Council and the Boards. In fact

the Government exercised an over all control .over these self-governing institutions through the Deputy Commissioner. This tight control naturally retarded the spontaneous development of the self governing units. The Decentralization Commission of 1907-09 too had observed that this institution failed due to its artificial character, absence of genuine election, want of financial responsibility and too much of Government control. It had practically become a department of the Government. To afford these Local bodies greater freedom from official control and to afford them greater scope of activities the Central Provinces and Berar Local Self Government Act was passed in 1920 which finally came into force from 1st May 1922. But the general election to the Local Boards and the District Council was held for the first time in 1923-24. Widely enhanced financial power, an elecorate on a liberalised franchise, disigned to comprise at least 5 per cent of the population an increase in the proportion of elected membrs, practical elimination of communal and official members and relaxation of official control provided for in the new Act, marked great advance, at least in theory.

No material change was brought about in the constitution of the Local Boards or the District Council at Narsimhapur under the new Act. Both the Local Boards of Narsimhapur and Gadarwara were constituted for the similar groups of eight circles each, but their members were returned purely on territorial basis through a liberal franchise. Each of these Local Boards was to be composed of 10 members, of whom 9 were to be elected and only 1 nominated. Section 79 of the Act fixed the total number of councillors for the District Council at 18, including 6 members each from the two Local Boards, 3 selected and an even number nominated. But subsequent records proved that the general rule was not always strictly adhered to. The following Table giving the constitution of the District Council at Narsimhapur and the Local Boards of Narsimhapur and Gadarwara at different stages will elucidate this fact.

Constitution of Narsimhapur District Council

Year	Area Sq. Miles	Population	Chairman-Elected Non-Official	Members				
				Ex-officio	Elected	Selected	Nominated	Total
1926-27	1,591	3,15,162	1	x	13	3	3	19
1927-28	1,591	3,15,162	1	x	12	4	3	20
1928-29	1,591	3,15,162	1	2	12	3	3	20
1930-31	1,591	2,95,341	1	1	12	3	3	19
1931-32	1,591	2,95,341	1	2	11	3	3	19
1933-34	1,591	2,95,341	1	2	12	3	3	20
1937-38	1,591	2 95,541	1	—	12	3	3	18

ecutive power which was vested in the Secretary who was ordinarily a nominee of the Commissioner.

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1930-31	1,591	2,95,341	1	1	12	3	3	19
1931-32	1,591	2,95,341	1	2	11	3	3	19
1933-34	1,591	2,95,341	1	2	12	3	3	20
1937-38	1,591	2 95,541	1	—	12	3	3	18

Of the total number of councillors, two-thirds were elected by the two local Boards, one-sixth were selected from the electorate by the elected members and one-sixth were nominated by the Divisional Commissioner and, after 1928, by the local Government.

Constitution of the Local Boards of Narsimhapur and Gadarwara

Years	Area in Sq. Miles	Narsimhapur Population	Chairman Elected Non-official	Members Ex-officio	Nominated	Elected	Total
1926-27	780	1,52,116	1	—	1	10	11
1927-28	780	1,52,116	1	2	1	9	12
1930-31	780	1,39,946	1	—	2	11	13
1931-32	780	1,39,946	1	1	1	9	11
1933-34	780	1,39,946	1	1	1	8	10
1937-38	780	1,39,946	1	2	1	9	12

Gadarwara Area in Sq. Miles	Population	Chairman Elected Non-official	Members Ex-officio	Nominated	Elected	Total
811	1,63,046	1 elected (official)	—	1	9	10
811	1,63,046	1	2	1	7	11
811	1,55,392	1	1	1	9	11
811	1,55,392	1	1	1	9	11
811	1,55,392	1	1	1	8	10
811	1,55,392	1	1	1	9	11

Apart from the Local Self-Government Act of 1920, which defined the general powers and functions of the District Council and the Local Boards there were also other general and adoptive acts which also gave certain specific powers to these Local bodies. These were Cattle Treepass Act of 1871, the Northern Indian Ferries Act of 1878, the Central Provinces and Berar Vaccination Law Act of 1932, the Central Provinces and Berar. Primary Education Audit Act of 1933 and the Central Provinces and Berar Village Sanitation and Public Management Act of 1920. Consequently, the functions, imposed upon the District Council and Local Boards increased considerably. Ordinary duties of the former were construction and maintanance of roads, avenues, hospitals, water works, wells and other Government works (other than irrigation works, transferred to them by the Government, establishment management, maintenance and inspection of schools, slaughter houses, markets, hospitals, veterinary hospitals, dispensaries, rest houses, and other institutions for the benefit of the public; supervision of sanitation

and vaccination, planting and preservation of trees on public gardens; holding and management of fairst agricultural shows and industrial exhibitions; registration of dogs and disposal of stray dogs; establishment and maintenance of relief work in times of scarcity; keeping of stud-bulls for breeding purposes and any other measures likely to promote the health, comfort and convenience of the public. As long as the cost of any original or repairing work did not run beyond Rs. 2,500, the two Local Boards enjoyed similars powers and performed identical duties within their jurisdictions. But these lower bodies were required to submit annually to the District Council a statement of their requirements and an estimate of their expenditure for the coming financial year. The most important change brought about under the new Act was the transfer of management of the public works was to the District Council from the Provincial Government. All the three Local bodies were empowered to bring under their control and private or public market within their jurisdiction and levy fees on brokers and on registration of animals sold there. Tolls were levied on pack-animals, porters and vehicles. Provision relating to public markets applied also to fairs, agricultural shows or industrial exhibitions.

Previously, when the District Council had no power of taxation, it was entitled to certain prescribed portion of coss and rates. By section 48 of the new Act those rates were abolished and instead a new cess, calculated at 6¼ per-cent of the land revenue, was granted to it. Under section 49 it could levy a further cess of an equal amount, while section 50 of the same Act authorised it to impose a special school-rate on non-agricultural incomes. Lastly, it could pass byelaws for the purpose of levying any other unspecified toll, tax or rate Unless it was indebted the District Council could pass its own budget, otherwise the Government had retained the power of confirmation of its budget estimate. Subject to the maintenance of a minimum balance, the District Council at Narsimhapur enjoyed complete financial autonomy, though, of course its accounts were submitted for Government audit. The following Table would give a clear idea of the financial assets and liabilities of the District Council at different periods.

Narsimhapur District Council

Income

(In Rs.)

Years	Education	Local Rates	Cattle Pound	Rates on Nazul Land	Ferries	Contribution from Previous Revenue	Other Receipts	Total Receipts
1891	1,125	17,506	6,997	1,560	9,605	10,020	7,095	53,998
1900-01	1,156	23,320	5,688	602	8,279	—	8,124	47,169
1906-07	1,526	35,088	6,821	397	6,680	24,500	25,190	1,02,676
1918-19	120	35,745	16,636	1,713	9,624	54,600	1,14,625	2,32,523
1921-22	170	36,651	16,858	909	10,081	75,144	6,537	1,46,350
1929-30	180	49,962	19,221	206	10,071	65,524	12,118	1,56,092
1937-38	37,429	50,956	13,802	93	12,020	—	—	2,30,790

Expenditure

Years	Establishment	Cattle Pound	Education	Medical	Civil Works	Veterinary	Other Expenditure	Total
1891	2,145	4,588	16,058	1,567	39,889	—	4,718	68,965
1900-01	2,321	3,936	16,523	4,295	19,666	—	6,147	52,888
1906-07	2,942	3,049	28,420	3,144	7,916	—	29,183	70,201
1918-19	5,020	8,156	47,573	7,435	39,204	1,981	92,992	2,02,361
1921-22	8,348	11,950	62,775	8,148	65,571	2,726	9,897	1,69,365
1929-30	9,912	10,714	69,877	12,372	48,471	2,533	8,492	1,62,371
1937-38	10,137	7,676	72,963	8,595	1,46,577	2,674	2,017	1,75,234

The District of Narsimhapur was abolished and combined with Hoshangabad District, with effect from 1st October, 1931. But in the same year the Central Provinces and Berar Local Self—Government (Amendement) Act was passed and the merged District was allowed to retain its District Council. On 24th October, 1942, the District Council, Narsimhapur and the Local Boards at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara were superseded on the charge of political activity and their administration was entrusted to Government officers. The period of supersession extended till 23rd April, 1943. During the year 1939 another amendment was made to the main Act, which the principle of adult franchise and the system of nomination in the Local bodies. Instead, it was provided that, in case the elected members did not include a Muslim, a Harijan or a woman the elected members should choose such members by single transferrable votes. None of these measures could achieve the desired result of really making these Local bodies 'nation building" institutions. They never had enough interest or money to provide adequete services or facilities to the people: on the other hand, district officers were given ample Government funds and support to administer similar subjects like education, public works, medical, etc. Ultimately, the District Council, Narsinghapur and the Local Boards Narsimhapur and Gadarwara were dissolved and in their place two Janpada Sabhas at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara were established under the the Central Provinces and Berar Local Government Act of 1948.

Janapada Sabhas

In 1948, the Janapada Sabha Scheme was introduced with the avowed object of effecting decentralisation of power and functions. The Janapada Act of 1948 was the culmination of an endeavour to diffuse real power to the people's representatives at the tahsil level. As early as in 1938, the Congress Ministry prepared a plan for thorough decentralization of administration. But with the resignation of the Ministry in 1939 the proposal was dropped. When

1. Report of the Rural Local Self-Government Committee, 1967, p. 13.

Independence was achieved the question was again taken up and reviewed with a still broader out-look. The most unique feature of this Act is that it aimed, at shifting the venue of the local Government from the district to the tahsil and envisaged the delegation of all subjects, except revenue, police and law, to the Janapada Sabhas at the tahsil level. According to the provision of the new Act the two Janapada Sabhas of the District, one at Narsimhapur and the other at Gadarwara were estabished in 1948 (under notification No. 3194-833 D-XIII dated the9th June,1948) with jurisdiction over their respective tahsils. The jurisdiction of the Janapada Sabha of Narsimhpur extended over an area of 1069 sq. miles and a population of 1,62,043 while the corresponding figures for the Janapada Sabha at Gadarwara were 909 sq. miles and 1,72,648 people. According to the Census Report of 1961, the population under the Narsimhapur Janapada Sabha has increased to 2,07,483, while in case of Gadarwara to 2,04,923.

Under Section 3 of the Janapada Sabha Act the whole of the rural area of the Narsimhapur Tahsil was divided on population basis into 17 rural circles or electoral divisions. In addition to these, there were three urban circles, comprising the municipal area of Chhota Chhindwara, Kareli and Narsimhapur. Similarly, there were 19 rural and 1 urban circles under the Janapada Sabha of Gadarwara. Each rural circle sent one elected councillor to the Janapada Sabha on adult franchise basis. The number of members representing the urban circles, and elected by the Municipal Councillors by single transferrable vote, was never to exceed one-sixth of the total strengrh. In case the elected members did not include a Harijan, there was provision for selecting such a member by them. Due to shortage of time all the members of the first session of the two Sabhas were nominated by the Government. In 1953, when the quinquennial term of the Sabha was over, the first regular election took place. Each Sabha elects its Chairman and Deputy Chairman at its first meetings, but none of them enjoys much executive or administrative power, which is really vested in a new functionary, known as the Chief Executive Officer, who is generally of a Deputy Collector's grade. He is appointed by the State Government. He is the administrative head of the Sabha and executes the policies laid down by it. In addition to his duties as the Chief Executive Officer he is Sub-Divisional Officer for the area. But the institution of the Chief Executive Officer which belied the very conception of democratic ideal came under a good deal of criticism and at last on the recommendation of tha Janapada Enquiry Committee of 1952 the State Government amended the Act of 1948 and the Chief Executed Officer has become responsible to the Sabha and removable by its two-thirds majority votes. The Tahsildar of each Tahsil acts as the Deputy Chief Executive Officer for the local Janapada Sabha.

Both the Janapada Sabhas of the District functioned till 1952 through six standing committees, *viz.*, Finance, Public Works, Public Health, Education

Agriculture and Development. Members of each standing committee were elected by single transferrable vote by the councillors of the Sabha. Each of these committees had an independent Chairman elected by the standing committee itself. The Chief Executive Officer was the ex-officio Secretary of every Committee. Actually these committees functioned as a kind of liaison between the deliberative Sabha and the real administrative authority-the Chief Executive Officer. On the recommendation of the Janapada Enquiry Committee, the Development Committee was abolished in 1953 and a new committee, known as the Administrative Committee was constituted to deal with the co-ordindation of the remaining five standing committees in each of the two Janapada Sabhas, Chairmen of all standing committees, the Chairman of the Sabha and the Chief Executive Officer are members of this Adminstrative Committee. Ordinarily it should be composed of 11 or one-third of the total number of councillors.

Functions

The functions allotted to the Janapada Sabhas are numerous. In brief they include "all measures likely to promote the health, comfort, education and convenience of the people living in the rural areas". Broadly speaking these are of three categories-obligatory-discretionary and entrusted. Obligatory duties, which were 16 in number in the orginal Act and reduced almost to its half by the Amendment Act of 1953, comprise establishment, management, and maintenance of rural schools, hospitalas, dispensaries, markets, sarais, transferred buildings and roads, cattlepounds, vaccination and other public health centres, village uplift, control of epidemics, registration of births and deaths, provision and control of relief work, provision for pure drinking water by constructing wells and tanks, and management of ferries. Discretionary functions were ten in number but subsequently increased to seventeen. Some of these optional duties are development of Cottage industries, management of agricultural shows, fairs and industrial exhibitions, provision of proper drainage and sanitary conveniences, disposal of the dead, aboriculture, improvement of livestock, relief work during natural calamity and regulation of vehicular traffic within the Janapada area. In addition to these, there is a list of 72 functions in section 52 of the Act itself, which can be gradually entrusted to the Sabha on behalf of the Government. While performing these entrusted functions, the Sabha acts as an agent of the State Government and works strictly according to policy and instructions laid down for it. In respect of these functions the extra expenditure incurred by the Sabha is reimbursed by the Government. Besides these duties, the Sabhas have been authorised to exercise general power of inspection, supervision and control over the Gram Panchayats' within their respective areas.

Sources of Income

Under Section 75 of the Act of 1948, each Janapada Sabha should have a Janapada fund, built up by proceeds of all taxes, fees, tolls, cesses and rates

imposed under the Act, (viz., compulsory and optional cess, special school rates on non-agriculturists, fees on public markets, fees on cattle-pounds, etc); all rents and profits from its Nazul property; certain percentage of land revenue; contribution and grants from Central and State Government or private persons; sums reimbursed by the State Government for performing entrusted functions and all sums recovered on account of composition under section 178. In short, the Sabha is authorised to have more sources of income than the District Council, in as much as it is given a share of land revenue and a higher rate of compulsory cess From 1883 onwards the rate of this cess was 18 pies per rupee, but the Sabha is empowered to impose an additional cess of 12 pies over and above that. It can levy any of the approved taxes with the previous sanction of the State Government. Inspite of the enhanced income, the financial resources of the Sabha were extremely inadequate and unequal to the proper performance of all the functions assigned to it. Thus, its activities could not cover, for lack of resources, some of its compulsory duties of village uplift and other rural work of vital importance. To remedy this bottle-neck the Government decided, on the recommendation of the Janapada Enquiry Committee, to enhance the rate of the compulsory cess to 30 pies per rupee by abolishing the optional cess; to fixed the education grant at 75 per cent of the expenditure and to pay the share of the land revenue at 5 per cent of its annual demand. In backward areas the ceiling of the education grant is at present 90 per cent. Regarding veterinary dispensaries the Government agreed to bear the full cost of serum and other medicines. These decisions were given statutory effect from 1953.

Control over the Janapada Sabha is exercised both by the Collector and by the State Government in almost the same manner as was done in the District Council and Local Boards.

Strictly adhering to the provisions enumerated in the Act of 1948, the two Janapada Sabhas of the District, *viz.*, at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara, have done commendable work during the last sixteen years of their existence. Their attention was focussed mostly on education, public health, and public works. During 1948-49, when the Janapada Sabhas were first constituted, there were only 68 primary and 9 middle schools under the jurisdiction of the Narsimhapur Sabha. As against this, there were as many as 154 primary, 31 middle, 3 higher secondary schools and 5 *Balmandirs* in the same Janapada area during 1962-63. Similarly, the number of primary schools increased from 45 to 137, and middle schools from 11 to 18 under the Janapada administration at Gadarwara. Besides, 7 higher secondary schools and 6 *Balmandirs* have been placed under its management. The public library at Kareli has been transferred to the Narsimhapur Sabha on which an yearly expenditure of Rs. 500 is incurred by it. A number of school buildings, 4 dispensaries, 1 public library and a community centre at Chichli, 1 rest-house at Linga, 1 Panchayat Bhawan at

Amgaon and 5 Harijan quarters each at Chirria and at Bohani were similarly constructed by the Gadarwara Janapada Sabha.

The following Table gives a glimpse of the development activities in different spheres since the year 1949-50 to 1964-65.

Gadarwara Janapada Sabha

(In Rs.)

Years	Total Receipts	Total Expenditure	Expenditure		
			Public Health	Road	Education
1949-50	2,73,829	2,55,524	6,331	7,477	1,11,516
1950-51	2,34,754	2,93,352	6,973	6,973	1,52,655
1951-52	2,34,380	2,72,946	5,069	4,000	1,32,101
1952-53	3,73,675	3,10,356	5,900	5,767	1,59,720
1953-54	5,46,493	4,53,199	6,075	6,930	1,83,891
1954-55	5,40,482	4,69,306	5,649	5,715	2,38,113
1955-56	4,89,440	4,80,444	5,211	21,321	2,45,617
1956-57	5,14,355	5,54,014	5,971	5,698	3,09,019
1957-58	5,92,813	5,33,424	6,530	4,860	3,18,425
1958-59	7,53,039	7,41,870	6,781	1,718	4,20,117
1959-60	7,99,932	8,27,804	6,431	7,406	4,69,268
1960-61	7,79,887	7,67,517	7,061	3,972	5,05,407
1961-62	9,43,199	9,30,361	6,444	5,214	5,94,833
1962-63	1,18,976	8,50,079	6,996	812	5,77,372
1963-64	6,33,765	8,19,592	7,061	2,201	3,22,041
1964-65	6,12,794	6,41,487	7,454	2,270	2,18,021

In the sphere of public health both Gadarwara and Narsimhapur Janapada Sabhas are managing 35 and 21 Ayurvedic and Homoepathic dispensaries, respectively. These dispensaries are looked after by government qualified *vaidyas*. Gadarwara Sabha spends Rs. 45,000 per annum on these dispensaries and Rs. 6000 on 5 vaccination centres. To provide pure water for drinking and cooking purposes both the Sabhas have constructed numerous tanks and wells within their jurisdictions. Their achievements in the field of their public utility services have also been spectacular. Within a very short time the Narsimhapur Sabha has constructed and established about 80 school buildings, 5 Ayurvedic dispensaries and 6 ferries.

The total income and expenditure figures on certain items for Narsimhapur Janapada Sabha are given below.

Narsimhapur Janapada Sabha

(In Rs.)

Year	Total Receipts	Total Expenditure	Expenditure Public Health	Roads	Education
1948-49	3,57,220	3,63,715	5,062	16,843	1,08,270
1949-50	2,91,659	2,61,248	4,311	19,659	1,06,137
1950-51	2,70,090	2,85,903	16,842	21,657	1,08,305
1951-52	3,49,092	3,12,406	13.961	11,644	1,33,522
1952-53	3,68,157	4,46,838	20,037	13,651	1,57,735
1953-54	4,48,974	4,26,468	19,735	13,813	1,73,027
1954-55	4,76,493	4,82,005	28,561	6,908	2,20,237
1955-56	4,74,388	5,25,868	20,369	15,594	2,25,367
1956-57	5.17,410	5,32,365	32,505	6,476	2,89,109
1957-58	5,87,340	5,60,920	8,216	7,282	3,39,175
1958-59	6,13,945	6,62,164	11,392	2,100	3,76,609
1959-60	6,42,417	6,84,246	7,546	4,888	4,07,667
1960-61	7,16,500	7,16,634	9,087	4,570	5,09,200
1961-62	8,21,357	7,73,336	8,194	4,933	4,93,214
1962-63	11,03,496	11,28,612	13,082	3,208	7,80,540
1963-64	2,19,488	7,84,302	9,654	2,392	4,51,824
1964-65	2,32,480	3,35,943	6,573	2,362	94,425

Panchayats

From times immemorial Gram Panchayats or self-contained village republics formed an integral part of our national life and preserved our culture and tradition against all political upheavals. When curing the early British regime too much executive and judicial powers were conferred on the Government officials and when landlordism and *ryotwari* systems were introduced against the village tenure system, these panchayats gradually ceased to exist. But soon the administrators realised their mistake and endeavour was made to revive this institution of village corporate life.

Till 1907 no appreciable progress was made in this direction. It was the Decentralization Commissions which proposed that in each village there should be constituted one village panchayat to serve as a basic unit of local democracy and a primary unit of local Government. The Commission recommended certain functions for these Local bodies, including management of village schools, summary jurisdiction in small civil and criminal cases; village sanitation; and management of village cattlepounds and markets. The Government of India accepted through its Resolutions of 1915 and 1918 main recommendation of the Commission of a net work of panchayats and following

the transfer of the Department of Local Self Government in the charge of a responsible Provincial minister, under the Government of India Act of 1919, simultaneously two Acts - the Central Provinces and Berar Village Sanitation and Public Management Act of 1920 and the Central Provinces and Berar Village Panchayat Act of 1920 were passed. The first of these Acts superseded the Village Sanitation Act of 1902. Under this Act, provision was made to create sanitation panchayats in areas notified by the Government, while under the other Act regular village panchayats were constituted in one rural areas. It was also decided upon that as far as possible the existing sanitation panchayats should be converted into village panchayats.

Powers and Duties

Administrative responsibilities of the panchayats of both these categories were almost identical, viz., conservancy, water supply, construction and maintenance of roads and any other work of public utility within their jurisdiction. In addition to these, the village panchayats were invested with civil and cirminal judicial powers to try petty local cases. A vital point of difference was that while the village panchayats were placed under the direct control of the District Council, the sanitation panchayats were given option to function under its subordination or not. In practice, the existing Sanitation Panchayat at Kareli was independent of the Dirstrict Council, while in relation to other village panchayats in the District the latter could control taxes, levied by them, pass or reverse their budgets or vary any of their previous resolutions.

Financial Resources

Finanancial resources admissible to these panchayats were fines levied under the Act, assessment on houses, buildings or land, license fees paid by on brokers, weighmen, etc., market fees, cattle registration fees, and tolls on goods brought for sale. The first imposition of these taxes or other charges required the sanction of the Local Government. Out of their total expenditure 9 per cent was incurred on conservancy, 8 per cent on water supply, 12 per cent on roads and buildings and 12 per cent on other miscellaneous items like management of fairs, markets,[1] etc. The Sanitation panchayat spent on an average 64 per cent on conservancy, 3 per cent on water-supply, 11 per cent on roads and 22 per cent on other administrative functions.[2]

The constitution of a sanitation panchayat required the sanction of the Local Government upon an application made by not less than 10 residents, alongwith the working *Mukkadam* (Headman) of the village concerned.[3] The

1. Memorandum on the Development of Local Self-Government Bodies in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1928-29, p. 71.
2. Ibid, p. 63.
3. Ibid, p. 58.

Mukkadam was the ex-officio member of this body which ordinarily had at-least four elected members. The village panchayats used to be established by the Deputy Commissioner after considering an application made either by the District Council or by not less than 20 adult male residents of a village or a groupe of villages. Almost all the village panchayats in the District, which undertook administrative duties were group Panchayats exercising authority over five or ten Villages. The inevitable result of this group system was that the elected members were swamped by the ex-officio *Mukkadam s*.[1]

For a variety of reasons the panchayat movement did not make much headway during its initial stage of progress. This led to the appointment of an enquiry committee in 1935 and on their recommendations a new Panchayat Act was enacted in 1946 for the whole of the Central Provinces and Berar. Under this Act municipal functions were assigned to the Gram Panchayat. This Act, as amended from time to time, continued to govern the panchayats of the Mahakoshal region.

According to the provision of the Act of 1946, the formation of panchayats was split up into three stages,[2] first for every village with a population of 1.000 or above, second for villages with a population of not less than 500 and third for villages with a population below 500. It was decided that when the third phase would be taken up villages would be grouped together on the basis of proximity, and group panchayats would be constituted with jurisdiction over several villages. In actual practice, however, due to Reorganization of the States, the third phase was never implemented. Even so the number of village panchayats which was only 198 in the whole of the District during 1957-58, increased to 450 during 1961-62.

Under the Act the village panchayats are entrusted with administrative functions alone, the judicial functions being given to a newly created institution known as the Nayaya Panchayat. A Gram Panchayat is composed of 5 to 15 *Panchas*, who are chosen by secret ballot by qualified voters for a period of 5 years on adult franchise basis. The Patel is an ex-officio Panch over and above the authorised strength. The *Sarpunch* of a Gram Panchayat is elected while the *Up-Sarpanch* is nominated by the *Sarpanch*. Their term of office is co-extensive with the term of the panchayat. The Panchas can be removed from their office by the Janapada authority on the recommendation of two-third majority of members. Like the Janapada Sabha, all members for the first term of each panchayat were nominated by the Government, but aftewards the system of regular election was introduced.

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1. Ibid, p. 69.
2. Report of the Rural Local Self-Government Committee, 1957, p. 12.

The Village Assistant or the Gram Sahayak acts as the ex-officio Secretary of a Gram Panchayat. His pay is drawn mainly from the Government treasury, and partly from the Panchayat fund when it exceeds Rs. 1,200 annually. Departmental control over these institutions are exercised through a hierarchy of officers, *viz.*, the Director of Social Welfare and Gram Panchayat, Divisional Panchayat and Social Welfare Officer, District Panchayat and Social Welfare Officer and Social Welfare Inspectors. Apart from this the local Janapada Sabha has the general powers of administration, supervision and control over the Gram panchayats.

Functions

The functions, entrusted to the village panchayats under the Act of 1946 are multifarious. In short, these cover the entire field of civic administration and social and economic development of the villages. The long list of their duties, as enumerated in the Act, has been described under two heads, optional and discretionary. The first category includes conservancy, sanitation, medical relief, vaccination and first aid; supply of water; registration of births, deaths and marriages and construction maintenance of village roads. Discretionary functions, assinged to the panchayat, may be treated as compulsory in certain cases if the Government so desire. Some of these duties are construction and maintenance of slaughter houses, provision and maintenance of encamping grounds; relief of the destitute and the sick, improvement of agriculture, cattle-breeding and of live stock; promotion of co-operative farming, establishment of granaries, village libraries and reading-rooms, promotion of agricultural credit and of measures to relieve rural indebtedness, planting of trees, prohibition, scarcity relief work, eradication of corruption and untouchability; encouragement of cottage industries, management of cattle-pounds sarais dharam shalas, rest houses, public latrines, *ghats*, ferries, fairs, agricultural shows, maternity and child-welfare centres, lighting of village streets, prepaiation of compost manure, diffusion of education, regulation of dangerous trades, etc.

Financial Resources

Financial resources admissible to these panchayats may be classified as :—

(a) Self-earned or independent income like compulsory and optional taxes, fees, rates, etc., and receipt from panchayat property.

(b) Government grant, both regular and *ad-hoc*.

(c) *Ad-hoc* Public contribution for specific development work.

Compulsory taxes include a cess on land revenue at the rate of 6 pies per rupee; a tax on building ano non-agricultural land, year, a tax on profession, an yearly licence fee on brokers, etc. Optional taxes may be levied with

approval from the local Janapada Sabha, as tolls on vehicles, pack-animals and markets, and as water-rate and lighting fee. In addition to these, every panchayat is empowered to raise loans equal to 5 per cent of its revenue from a Village Development Fund.

The budget of every Gram Panchayat, which is sanctioned by the Janapada authority, must provide for a closing balance of not less than one-sixth of the estimated normal income of the year. The following Table, giving the income and expenditure of the gram panchayats in the District from 1957-58 to 1963-64 would convey an idea of their financial position as well as their sphere of activities.

Income and Expenditure of Gram Panchayats

(In Rs.)

Year	Income	Expenditure
1957-58	1,74,567	72,560
1958-59	1,24,149	15,112
1959-60	1,23,625	78,618
1960-61	1,23,474	1,07,470
1961-62	1,50,599	1,41,824
1962-63	3,84,338	2,31,261
1963-64	5,90,756	3,21,479

Panchayati Raj

The prevalence of different systems of Panchayats in the various constituent units of reorganised Madhya Pradesh created considerable administrative inconvenience and the need was felt to achieve uniformity of pattern by integrating these various sets of laws perteining to the rural Local bodies. Committee was therefore appointed by the State Government. The Rural Local-Self Government/(under Resolution No. 6105-XVIII Local Self-Government dated the 29th July,1957) for this purpose. This endeavour of the Madhya Pradesh Government coincided with the effort of the Government of India to implement the Directive Principles of State Policy, contained in Article 40 of the Indian Constitution.

In the first phase of its implementation the Balwant Rai Mahta Commission was appointed by the Central Government in 1957, which recommended democratic diffusion of the centripetal power. The National Development Council endorsed this recommendation in its meeting on January 12, 1958, and finally the Central Council of Local Self Government, in its fifth meeting at Hyderabad in 1959, enunciated certain broad principles on which the existing panchayats were advised to be reconstituted so that they could form the

base of the entire community development programme and supply it with necessary vitality and vigour. Some of these basic principles were.

(a) The Panchayati Raj should be a three-tier structure of the Local bodies from the village to the District being organically linked up.

(b) There should be genuine transfer of power and responsibility, with adequate resources transferred to them.

(c) All development programmes at these three levels should be channelled through these bodies.

In the light of these principles the Madhya Pradesh Panchayat Act VII, comprising 392 section was passed in 1962. It will be implemented in all the districts of Madhya Pradesh after the first Panchayati Raj election and with it the Panchayat Act of 1946 would stand repealed in Narsimhapur.

The new Act envisages introduction of three tier system of panchayats; Gram Panchayat at the village level the Janapada Panchayat at the Development Block level and the Zila Panchayat at the district level. Under this Act the Gram Sabha, consisting of all the adults of the village, has been recognised as a statutory body, which shall meet at least twice a year to consider programme of work and the panchayat budget at the village level. Gram Sabhas are also to elect the members of the Gram Panchayat at the ratio of 10 panchas for a population of 1000 and one extra *Panch* for each additional 200 persons. Reserve seats have been provided for two co-opted women members, one representative of the Co-operative society and one from Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes. The Janapada Panchayat shall consist of, in addition to the elected *Panchas* varying from 15 to 30, one member from the co-operative marketing societies, one from each municipal body, one from Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, two women and the local M.L.As The Zila Panchayat, extending its jurisdiction over the whole District, shall include *Sarpanchas* of all Janapada Panchayats, M.L.As from the District and all the District Officers, representing Public Health, Education, Agriculture and other Development Departments, one woman, one member of Scheduled Castes or Scheduled Tribes and one member representing the co-operative societies. The official members, however, have no right of voting. Every Gram Panchayat, having an annual income of at least Rs. 5000 can have a full time Secretary and the Janapada Panchayat, a Chief Executive Officer, while the Zila Panchayat is empowered to have the services of the District Panchayat Officer.

Functions assigned to the gram panchayats are promotion of agriculture, co-operation, cottage industries, sanitation, conservancy minor irrigation works, water-supply, and organizing collective farming and credit societies. The

Janapada panchayats are to execute Community Development programme in association with gram panchayats,co-operative societies, voluntary organizations and the public. This would include improvement of agriculture, animal husbandary and fisheries; education, communication and public work, health and sanitation; co-operation, emergency relief work. social welfare, collection of statistics, self-help programme, etc. *The Zila Panchayat's main duty is to supervise and* guide the gram panchayats,co-ordinate their activities and distribute Government funds among Janapada panchayats. For efficient functioning the gram panchayats have been empowered to from seven functional sub-committees, Janapada panchayats seven standing committees and the Zila Panchayat five standing committees.

Financial Resources

As regards financial resources no major change has been made in the gram panchayat fund but provision has been made to allot suitable amount to the Janapada panchayats for carrying out Community Development Pragramme. It has also been authorised to levy a toll tax on new bridges constructed by itself and an entertainment tax on theatre and other public shows. The Zila Panchayat will get forest revenue, and contribution from the State Government and other bodies, besides a share from the land revenue. The budget of the gram panchayats would be approved by the Zila Panchayat. The last named is authorised to sanction its own budget.

Necessary arrangements have been made to impart appropriate training to the *Panchas* and the office bearers of these Local bodies before the Panchayati Raj is implemented.

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

It is difficult to speak about the forms and centents of ancient education in the District with certainty, for our information is based on documents of doubtful authenticity and dates. There are no archaeological monuments or inscriptions which could throw light on the historical background of educational system in Narsimhapur. However, the vast and varied literature and rich cultural tradition prevailing during the ancient and medieval periods till annals of authentic history of educational system start, offer scope for surmise and conjectures. The holy Narmada which forms the northern boundary of the District and its confluence with the Warahi river at Barman, lent an air of sacredness to the place in the past. It would not be improbable that the banks of the sacred Narmada in the District would have sheltered learned sages in the past. No proofs, however, exist of systematic education in the sense of a consecutive course for several years. However, a period seems to have always been set apart in every child's life for education, if we may rely on the *Vedas* and *Upanishads*. In the early Vedic period there seems to have been a number of such teachers who set up as *gurus*, and attracted a small number of pupils who came and lived in their *ashram*. There was therefore, a very personal contact between teacher and pupil. The primary object of the ancient education appears to be religious and personal. Education was meant to be a religious initiation; the teacher had to teach the pupil how to pray, to offer sacrifice, to perform his duties according to his status in life. This, of course implied a certain general education in grammar, texts, simple mathematics, mythology and perhaps in astrology too. This system of education would have been in vogue from the Rigvedic period down to the Buddhist and Jain reforms. These reforms introduced the monastic system, which spread even in the original Brahmanical religion, and produced *Mathas* where large bodies of teachers and pupils lived together in a kind of community.

The presumption that the District was included in the territories of Haihaya Rajput kings of Chedi dynasty, who ruled the upper Narmada valley from the end of the 7th century A. D. with Tripuri as their capital, leads

one to a conclusion that Narsimhapur also would have shared their system of education in the past. Apart from this, Narsimhapur being close to Tripuri and the archaeological findings revealing that a branch of Mattamayura[1] clan was founded at Bheraghat, suggests that Narsimhapur would have also shared the culture and civilization of that period. During the reign of Chedi Kings, a hypaethral temple was erected on a hillock on the bank of the Narmada. This temple alongwith a monastery established by its side became popular as 'Golki *Matha*'. This *Matha* sent its *Acharyas* to distant places for preaching its faith, and also attracted learned and pious men to it. Branches of this *Matha* were established at several places. This way the *Matha* became a famous seat of learning.

By the end of the 15th Century this District came under the fold of Gond kings when Chauragarh fort in Gadarwara Tahsil was the scene of several of the most important battles. The system of administration of the Gond Kings does not present any evidence of the existence of any system of education during this period. Fall of Gond Kings as a consequence of the Mohammedan invasion in 1564 and the subsequent change of territory between Marathas and Bhonslas during the early years of 19th Century, did not probably allow any system of education to exist in the District.

Obviously, education during this period rested with the Pandits and a few Brahmin landlords of the District. The prosperous era of monastic system of education languished during the period and passed into the hands of *Gurus* among the Hindus, and *Moulvis* among the Muslims. They taught the children of the respective communities. Apart from *Gurus*, a Kayastha and one or two more educated persons formed the nucleus of the educated society in the village. Of these one used to be a *Vaidya*, other a *Pandit*, third a *Patwari*, and the last a teacher. These four community servants used to get land for cultivation and were paid by all in kind, annually, and also some monthly cess. It is also reported that some of the persons used to go to some other districts as teachers from here. During the Maratha rule and also in the early British rule, the old system of public health and education continued till hospitals and schools were opened either by the Government or by Local bodies. The Mohammedan invasion and the settlement of Mohammedan population led to the introduction of Arabic and Persian as a part of instruction in the indigenous schools. Small village schools grew up near the mosques but these taught little more than prayers and maxims from the *Koran*.

1. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, p. CI VII (The *Matha* at Mattamayura being a renowned seat of Saivism, supplying Saiva pontiffs from time to time to the monasteries in the Chedi country.)

BEGINNING OF WESTERN EDUCATION

The territories of the Central Provinces began to fall to British in 1817, which were later welded into a separate administrative unit in 1861. The districts of Nerbudda Divison were then attached to the North-Western Provinces. 'Prior to the cession of the Nerbudda Territories the only institutions for the education in the District were Hindi schools, in which the multiplication table was taught, and Persian and Arabic schools in which the words of the *Koran* were learned by heart but not explained to the scholars, while a few Pandits collected private pupils and imparted to them such a modicum of knowledge as would enable them to become village priests and astrologers.'[1]

Little was done in the sphere of education until 1846, when the Lieutenant Governor of the North-Western Provinces raised the question of establishing rural schools. During the 'forties when the District of Narsimhapur was a part of North-Western Provinces, there were only 19 indigenous schools in the District.[2] The number of Persian and Arabic schools was 6, while Hindi and Sanskrit schools were 13 in number. In Persian and Arabic schools there were 6 teachers and all of them had fixed monthly average income of Rs. 7-1-6.[3] Out of these schools 3 were established somewhere between 1844-46. The total number of scholars in these schools was 53. It is interesting to note that though these schools were imparting instruction in Arabic and Persian yet a majority of scholars were Hindus, belonging to Brahmin, Rajput, Kayastha, and Baniya castes. There were only 10 Mohammedan students in these schools.

The number of Sanskrit and Hindi schools mostly held in private dwellings as stated earlier was 13. The teachers in these schools had also fixed average monthly income of Rs. 7-0-9. The number of scholars in these schools was 177. One school in 1846 was more than ten years old, four between two to four years, five between one to two years and six were started near about the year 1845-46. This presents an evidence that in 'thirties of the last century the District of Narsimhapur had just one school, and that too of indigenous nature.

The evidence of Ambica Charan Banerji, Head Clerk, Deputy Commissioner's Office, Jabalpur recorded by the Central Provinces, Provincial Committee on Education shows that in Narsimhapur, Persian schools provided instructions in Persian literature to Muslims and certain classes of Hindus as well, such as, Kayastha, etc. In Hindi schools, apart from other subjects instructions in arithmetic and accounts were given by way of arithme-

1. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 199.
2. Report of Provincial Committee, Representing the Central Provinces, p. 166.
3. Ibid, p. 169.

tical talks, various practical rules or formulae known by the name of *Gur*, all learnt by heart by the students.[1] This further throws light on the condition of indigenous education in Narsimhapur District.

For improving the lot of indigenous schools, Lieutenant Governor of North-Western Provinces ordered an enquiry to collecting facts about the same. Later, various steps were taken by the Government to promote the indigenous education. Vernacular schools, which had already taken shape, were required to serve as models at the headquarters of every tahsil. Decision was also taken for the formation of *halka bandi* or village schools, to be supported by voluntary contributions in the form of one per cent cess on the land rental which on the formation of Central Provinces was raised to two per cent. In parts of Narsimhapur, alongwith Hoshangabad and Betul,[2] this system was fully introduced.

The Despatch of 1854 also provided for the improvement and expansion of education, both English and vernacular. For the accomplishment of these objects the means adopted were the establishment of a separate department of the administration, and also the introduction of a system of grants-in-aid. Thus in the North-Western Provinces the upper-stratum of vernacular education comprised the tahsil schools. Though commenced from 1850, and initially confined to only two circles, the scheme flourished in all the circles of the Provinces from 1854. But it was observed after sometime that the progress of education, even with these improvements, was not satisfactory because of the absence of Normal Schools, and an organised system of inspection and examination. As such consequent upon the formation of the Central Provinces, Narsimhapur was placed under the jurisdiction of the Inspector of Schools, Northern Circle, to be assisted by *pargana* visitors styled as Deputy and Sub-Deputy Inspectors. The education, in the District received a great impetus and schools were repidly established. By 1871, 48 Government schools of all classes came into axistence with 2,659 scholars. There were also 62 private schools, with 1,144 scholars. These schools also included 10 girls' schools with 344 pupils. By 1880-81 the number of Government schools increased to 71 with 3,895 scholars, but there was a considerable decline in the number of private schools under inspection.

Earlier, the Resolution of 1835 laid great emphesis on the study of English, and also on the improvement of vernacular education by translation of English publication and original work in Hindi, and other languages. English education as supposed to have been the need of the hour, found expression in the establishment of Government schools in 1835 which were given liberal grants-in-aid after the Wood's Despatch of 1854. In 1883 rural schools were

1. Education Commission, Report by the C.P. Provincial Committee, 1884, p. 171.
2. Ibid. p. 6.

placed under the management of the District Council, and those in town, under municipality. In 1890-91, the number of schools increased to 96 against 71 a decade ago, with 6,062 scholars. The number of girls schools had not increased since 1871. In 1901-02 the number of schools was 103 with 5,926 scholars, the average attendance being 3,966. In the year 1903-04 the same number of schools had 6,110 pupils.[1] The educational institutions in this year comprised two English Middle Schools at Narsimhapur and Gadarwara, with branch schools attached to them, and vernacular middle schools at Singhpur, Kareli, Tendukhera and Chhindwara. The number of boys who received Secondary education was 1,106, or 2 per cent of those of school going age. There were four urban and 77 rural primary schools, and 11 girls schools. The Narsimhapur Mission managed a technical school in which different trades were taught. The expenditure on education was Rs. 49,000, of which Rs. 43,000 was provided from Provincial and Local funds, and Rs. 4,000 from fees.

Organisation and Set-up

Prior to the formation of the Central Provinces in November, 1861, the Saugor Nerbudda Territories, being the part of North-Western Provinces had a system of education prevailing in that region. With the Despatch of 1854, the North-Western Provinces, as stated earlier, was divided into two circles, which were regrouped later into four, and the Saugor Nerbudda Territories were covered under the fourth circle with headquarters at Sagar. Helbert was placed incharge as Circle Inspector. With the formation of the Central Provinces, Department of Education was established and placed under the Director of Public Instruction. The Province was divided into three circles. The northern circle comprising Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, included Narsimhapur District with headquarters at Jabalpur. Each of the circles was placed under an Inspector who was assisted by Assistant Inspectors, District Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of Schools. The Department being in its infancy, sought the co-operation of civil authorities and the people. Therefore, primary and middle school classes were managed by the Deputy Commissioners, assisted by Tahsildars. The Zila schools and the High schools were, however, under the Education Department. In addition, there were extradepartmental controlling agencies, *viz.*, the District Councils, municipal committees, and school committees.

The three Inspector circles were regrouped into five circles in 1904-05 corresponding to the Commissioners' Divisions. The investigations of the Education Commission in 1882 and the establishment of local self-government brought about the transfer of departmental schools to the management of Local bodies, but their powers were strictly limited by the authority of the civil and

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1. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 250.

the educational officers. Besides, a school committee was also attached to each school consisting of officials and non-officials. On the creation of a new post of Deputy Director for the Province the European schools in the District were also put in his charge. He was to be assisted by an Inspectoress of schools for the purpose. The organisation of administrative machinary again took place in 1938, when three Deputy Directors were appointed instead of Circle Inspectors to assist the Director. Each District was given a post of an Inspector. But this system adversely affected the inspection of high schools, and consequently in 1940, on the abolition of the post of Deputy Directors, four posts of Divisional Superintendent of Schools (now Divisional Superintendent of Education) were created, and Narsimhapur High School came under the supervision of Hoshangabad Division. Now there are nine educational Divisions, and Narsimhapur is still under the Divisional Superintendent of Education, Hoshangabad. He is the controlling, administrative and inspecting authority of Government high and higher secondary schools in the District, both for boys' and girls' schools. As for girls' education Divisional Superintendent of Education is assisted by a lady Assistant Divisional Superintendent.

The primary and middle education is controlled by District Education Officer, formerly known as District Inspector of Schools. He is assisted by Assistant District Inspectors and Inspectresses of Schools, for boys and girls primary education, respectively. For inspection and supervision, the District is sub-divided into suitable ranges of 40 to 50 primary schools each, and is placed in the charge of an Assistant District Inspector of Schools with headquarters at tahsil or Block places. In 1964, there were 17 Assistant District Inspectors and one Assistant District Inspectress of schools who inspect the primary education for boys and girls, respectively, in this District. The collegiate education is administered by the Director of Collegiate Education, Madhya Pradesh, who is under the State Education Secretary.

LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS

The changes in the system of classification and concept of literates, and transfers of area of the District from census to census render it difficult to obtain an accurate estimate of the growth of literacy in the past. The information relating to literecy collected under decennial censuses is reproduced below. The test for being recorded as literate, devised in 1961 Census was the ability to read any simple letter, either in print or in manuscript and ability to write a simple letter. The growth of literacy over the last 60 years since 1901 can be seen from the following Table.—

Year	No. of literates			Literacy percentage		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1901	14,927	14,401	526	4.75	9.36	.33
1911	16,114	15,494	629	4.95	9.58	.38
1921	20,202	18,859	1,343	6.41	11.91	.86
1931	23,533	21,590	1,943	7.32	13.38	1.21
1941	38,305	34,585	4,220	11.58	20.36	2.56
1951	46,416	38,266	8,150	13.69	22.21	4.91
1961	88,864	68,749	20,115	21.55	32.54	10.00

Since 1901, the literates as a percentage to total population increased from 4.75 to 21.55 in 1961. During the same period the male lireracy increased from 9.36 to 32.54 per cent and female literacy from 0.33 to 10.00 per cent of the respective population. In 1901, the District with 48 literate persons per thousand of population was only next to Jabalpur (58) with regerd to literacy among the districts of Nerbudda Territories. The position obtaining in 1961, which reflects the determined efforts made by the various agencies for the eradication of illiteracy, is really encouraging. Out of every 100 persons in the District, 21.5 were literate, which can favourably be compared with the State figures of 17.1 and also Jabalpur Division (20.58). Though rural literacy percentage was lower (18.3 per cent) than urban (45.5 per cent) yet it was next only to Indore (19.6 per cent) and Balaghat (19.3 per cent) in the State. Considering female rural literacy alone, it ranked first (7.30 per cent) in the State while male (rural) literacy ranked fifth. The comparatively higher rural literacy percentage in the District is partly owing to the fact that the higher proportion of population (57 per cent) is living in bigger villages with population of more than 500, where people are more alive to the need of educating their children.

During the last decade, it may be seen that rural literacy increased by one and a half times However, in urban areas it was not so high for the literacy rate increased from 38 2 per cent in 1951 to 45.5 per cent in 1961.

It is interesting to analyse the literacy standard among the male and female population. Of the total literate persons in the District, about 82 4 per cent do not possess any educational standard and thus literally conform to the census definition of the term literate. Persons with education up to primary level examination or below secondary level are 14.4 per cent. The proportion of persons having education up to higher secondary stage, however, is 3.2 per cent of all literate and educated population. The following Table gives the population of literate and educated according to 1961 Census.—

	Total	Males	Females
Literate (without educational standard)	73,201	56,079	17,122
Primary standard, Junior Basic	12,801	10,040	2,761
Matriculation or Higher Secondary	2,862	2,630	232
Technical Diploma not equal to degree	44	41	3
University degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degree	259	229	30
Engineering	6	6	—
Medicine	21	20	1
Agriculture	8	8	—
Veterinary and dairying	4	4	—
Teaching	454	46	8

Spread of Education Among Women

Presumably, somewhere in 1860's we can trace the advent of female education in the District. Provincial Committee of the Central Provinces observed in its report to Education Commission in 1884 that "Educational operations only commenced 20 years ago in the Central Provinces, and it is perhaps too early to expect that men who hardly appreciate the education of their sons, could care about the education of their daughters."[1] However, the condition of female education in 1876 does not appear to be bad as the Committee reveals that "The only districts that show any advance in the education of girls are Nagpur, Seoni, Jabalpur, Narsimhapur, Saugor and Nimar".[2]

From the time of 1854 Despatch which is the first mile-stone in the history of education till 1870, female education seems to be in a neglected condition in the District. It is only after the formation of the Central Provinces that the female education attracted the attention of Government. In 1863, five girls schools (of lower classes) were opened at Narsimhapur with 136 students on rolls. Gadarwara and Chawarpatha also got these schools in the same year, the number of girls at both these places was 50 and 8, respectively. During the period 1881-82, the District of Narsimhapur had 10 primary schools for girls with 332 girls in the lower primary standard and 12 in the upper primary standard on the rolls.

The schools at Narsimhapur, Singhpur, and Chawarpatha were working quite satisfactorily. The girls schools like other village schools, were supported

1. Education Commission, Report by the C.P. Provincial Committee, 1884,p.74,
2. Ibid, p. 75.

from the Educational Cess Funds. The Director of Public Instruction in 1865-66 observed, "The progress made in these schools must be slow and except in places where European ladies interested themselves, I do not anticipate great results".[1] After a decade in 1880-81, the number of girls under instruction increased to 634, which subsequently in 1893-94 decreased to 596, but in 1894-95, and in 1895-96 it again went up to 601 and 612, respectively.[2] In 1902-03 special measures regarding the female education resulted in the provincialization of girls schools, which were hitherto under the management of Local bodies. Girls schools were placed under the supervision of an Inspectress two years later. In order to remove the difficulty of procuring trained teachers a female normal school was opened at Nagpur. By 1902-03 the number of girls under instruction decreased to 455. However, by 1908-09 the conditions improved and the number of female students increased to 986 because of school committees, which took special interest in the female education. The school committees at Kareli, Gadarwara, Singhpur and Kandeli (Narsimhapur) deserve mention.[3] Miss Bailey, the Inspectress of Schools in 1907-08, especially commended the flourishing condition of Kareli school when she ascribed it largely to the interest taken by Jey Lal, the Deputy Inspector, Narsimhapur. Miss Bailey considered Narsimhapur District to be one of the most advanced in reference to female education. The Kareli school also had a boarding house for girls. The number of pupils sent to Jabalpur Female Normal School was 12. Till 1911-12, when the number of girls under instruction increased to 1,173, the progress of female education remained steady. But hereafter it became slow and by 1923-24 the girls on the rolls only increased to 1,428 in the District. In this year the Inspectress of Schools remarked that, this was owing to the growing realization of villager that the primary education is entirely in his own interest, and sending the girls to schools entirely depends on him. Financial pressure is another important cause which retards the education of girls. In view of all this, improvemts were made in the curricula of girls schools of all grades. By 1928 a committee of officials and non-officials was appointed by the local Government to enquire into the female education and to suggest measures for its extension and improvement. Accordingly, the Local bodies of Narsimhapur also opened a few more schools. Apart from Government efforts, the public also did not lag behind, and a girls High School at Narsimhapur was started in 1938 with the help of public subscription.

Following Independence, great strides were made under different Plans towards the spread of female education. State Council for Women's Education

1. State and Progress of Education, 1895-96.
2. Ibid, 1908-09.
3. Ibid, p. 17.

was set up and liberal grants were given to private agencies for the establishment of new schools. As a result of these efforts by the year 1856-57 there were 15 primary schools exclusively for girls, which increased to 22 in 1961-62, and 26 in 1963-64. The total number of students in these institutions was 1,217 in 1956-57, taught by 41 teachers, which gradually increased to 8,418 in 1961-62, and 9,518 in 1963-64. The expenditure in 1959-60 increased from Rs. 35,108 in 1956-57 to Rs. 58,568 and to 3,24,165 in 1962-63. This appears to be mainly becuase of the increased grants-in-aid made available to private organisations by the Government from year to year. The grants-in-aid given by the Government in 1956-57 was Rs. 12,800 which increased in 1959-60 to Rs 48,635 and by the end of the Second Five year Plan there were 24 primary schools, 8 middle schools and 2 higher secondary schools, exclusively for female education.

Though the number of middle schools for females decreased to 6 in 1958-59 from 7, two years back. yet the students in schools increased to 1,698 in 1959-60 from 1,296 in 1956-57, and to 5,710 in 1963-64. Similarly, the number of female teachers increased to 51 in 1959-60 from 47 in 1956-57 and to 178 in 1963-64. Amongst these a good number were trained teachers. The expenditure during the period on middle school education increased from Rs. 49,665 in 1956-57 to Rs. 70,300 in 1958-59 and to Rs. 1,21,525 in 1962-63.

There are 3 higher secondary schools for girls in the District of these 2 are managed by the Government while the remaining 1 by a private body. The Maharani Laxmi Bai Higher Secondary School of Narsimhapur was started originally by a private management, 'Adarsha Kanya Samiti', but it was taken over by the Government in 1947. The 'Kanya Naveen Vidya Bhawan' at Gadarwara established in 1956, is managed by a private body known as Education Society, Jabalpur. The growth of female education since 1956-57 may be seen from the following Table.—

Year	Students	Teachers	Expenditure (Rs.)
1956-57	246	16	42,000
1959-60	372	37	91,827
1961-62	843	35	—
1963-64	1,091	42	—

During the Third Five Year Plan, ample facilities have been provided regarding training, accommodation, etc. A Women's Basic Training Institute has also been started at Narsimhapur for training female teachers. An attempt has been made under the improvement scheme for reorientation of female education. Since the introduction of the Scheme the incidence of female education has shown improvement. Girls' co-education is also becoming popular.

Spread of Education Among Backward Classes

According to 1961 Census the population of Scheduled Castes and Tribes in the District was 32,622 and 50,495, respectively. They formed about one fifth of the total population. Their unwillingness to send children to school has mainly been responsible for illiteracy among them apart from their poverty.

On the recommendation of the committee (1921) appointed by the Government of Central Provinces and Berar, to enquire into the education of these Backward Classes, liberal grants to the extent of two-thirds of their annual expenditure were offered to the schools opened by the private bodies for the education of the depressed classes.[1] In an investigation conducted by the Provincial Government in 1930, it was observed that the position in respect of education was improving. However, the progress was said to be retarded due to the poverty of the classes and communalism of orthodox Hindus.[2] The period also witnessed the rise of the movement for removal of untouchability and awakening among depressed classes about their civil rights. Since 1933-34 candidates belonging to the depressed and tribal classes were exempted from the payment of fees. In 1940, special facilities were extended to the education of *Harijans* of the districts. With the attainment of Independence, activities in this field gained momentum. The Constitution has laid down that 'the State shall promote with a special care, the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, etc.' Madhya Pradesh Government formulated schemes for the promotion of education among these Classes. Among these the important schemes are, opening and maintenance of institutions, exclusively for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes, reservation of seats in schools, colleges and hostels; grant of scholarships at all stages of education, stipends and other financial concessions; exemption from payment of school, hostel and examination fees; and free lodging, clothing, books, stationery, etc. The State Government have now posted a Tribal Welfare Assistant in Narsimhapur to assist the Collector, in the welfare and uplift work of the Backward Classes. Apart from the Government, the voluntary social services organisations, like the Adim Jati Vanwasi Seva Mandal and Harijan Sevak Samiti are also doing some good work towards the same end. Two middle schools and 10 primary schools, run by the former in the *adivasi* areas had 90 students in 2 middle schools and 600 in the 10 primary schools in 1962-63. The amount spent on primary schools in 1962-63 was Rs 17,658 and on middle schools, Rs. 7,470. Liberal grants by way of stipends and scholarships are given to Scheduled Caste and Tribe children by the State Tribal Welfare Department.

1. C P. Administration Report, 1921-22, pp. 54-55.
2. Census of India, 1931, C. P. and Berar, p. 394.

Special attempts are being made by the Education Department also to encourage and spread education amongst them. · These organisations are given liberal grants by the Government. As a result of these activities the educational standards of these classes have increased to a considerable extent. The Table below shows the progress of Backward Classes education from 1947-48 to 1963-64.—

Year	Primary		Secondary		Collegiate	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1947-48	421	18	28	1	—	—
1951-52	720	44	52	6	—	—
1961-62	1,796	673	1,046	220	5	—
1962-63	2,391	784	1,250	339	19	—
1963-64	2,450	712	980	229	25	—

The State Tribal Welfare Department is the agency to distribute the pre-matric scholarships instituted by the State Government, and post-matric scholarships are awarded by the Central Government. In Narsimhapur all these scholarships are disbursed by the Collector. The District Tribal Welfare Assistannt, and District Educational Officer assist him in this work. Prior to 1960-61 the post-matric scholarships were granted directly by the Government of India. In the year 1962-63, post matric scholarships, amounting to Rs. 11,917, were awarded to 30 students of Scheduled Castes and Tribes and other Backward Classes. During the year 1963-64, 1,106 students of all classes in middle and higher secondary schools were granted a sum of Rs. 1,06,515. Apart from these 2,148 boys were also supplied with books and other stationery articles, worth Rs. 4,630 during 1963-64.

GENERAL EDUCATION

The importance of primary education for a democratic set-up like ours, cannot be over emphasised. The primary stage consist of two stages of education, viz., preprimary and primary.

Pre-Primary Education

Pre-primary edcation is an important step to pimary education. The pre-primary system infact is not of recent origin. In the year 1902-03 infant classes were opened and in these schools children, if they attended schools at all, were known by the designation of *ummadwar* and had regular teaching of an elementary kind. This new venture was quite successful. But gradually the practice of providing elementary instruction to infants vanished. However, the instructions at the pre-primary stage received encouragement in the post-Independence period.

Pre-primary or nursery schools cater for children below six years of age. These have so far remained confined to urban areas, and are managed by the private agencies. The District of Narsimhapur till 1959-60 had only 3 such schools attended by 58 children. An ambitious plan for pre-primary education has now been drawn up by the State Government with a view to placing the education on a sound footing. Accordingly a large number of pre-primary schools, to be known as Balak Mandirs, are being opened through out the District. The progress of pre-primary education is given in the following Table.—

Year	Number of institutions	Enrolment			Number of staff	Grants-in-aid	Expenditure
		Boys	Girls	Total		Rs.	Rs.
1960-61	6	119	109	228	6	4,260	5,680
1961-62	11	232	236	468	11	3,879	11,420
1962-63	12	256	268	524	12	6,190	15,269
1963-64	12	261	209	470	12	5,535	15,313

Primary Education

It was only after the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861 that we witness great strides being made in respect of the primary education in the District. The growth of education in Narsimhapur merged into the stream of educational development of the Province as a whole, which has adequately been discussed in the earlier pages. With the advent of the 20th Century, a few changes were made at the primary level of education after the recommendations of the Education Conference of 1901 at Simla. The system of payment of grants-in-aid by results was abolished, fixed grant system was substituted. The aided schools, other than those under the management of mission and societies were converted into Board schools. The upper and lower primary examinations were abolished, consequent upon the revision of curriculum in 1908. During the closing years of the 19th Century, education suffered a set-back because of the famines and epidemics which devastated the District. As a result in 1897-98, 6 schools were closed down. However, the set-back suffered was made good by 1905-06, when liberal grants were received by the District Council for the improvement of primary education. Consequently, the number of primary schools increased from 91 to 94. The total expenditure on primary education from all the sources in 1891-92 was Rs. 14,236, which by 1905-06 increased to Rs. 37,117. In the year 1908-09 the curriculum of the primary education was revised. The important changes which came into effect as a result of the revision were the substitution of subjects for general readers,

1. State and Progress of Education Report, 1902-03.

and introduction of the study of Nature based upon agriculture. By the year 1915-16 the number of primary schools increased to 107, with an average attendance of 4,694 males and 322 females in this District. By the beginning of the twenties, new grants-in-aid code was introduced to encourage private agencies to open new schools in the villages. In the concluding years of the decade, education was transferred to the control of Legislative Council, which resulted in the quickening of public interest in eduational matters. As a result of these efforts the number of primary schools increased to 111 in 1920-21. The Non-co-operation Movement that followed, resulted in the boycott of schools, and children remained absent from schools for long periods. The constitution of many boards and committees which strived for several reforms in the system of education, ultimately led to the enactment of Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1920.

Compulsory Primary Education

Compulsory primary education was introduced in the Province in statges, and it was not till 1930 that the Scheme could be enforced in this District. To assist Local bodies in meeting the expenditure, on compulsory primary education, the Government set aside Rs. 10,000 for the purpose. The Notified Area Committee of Kareligunj, enforced compulsion within its jurisdiction in 1930. The Municipal Committee, Gadarwara, also introduced compulsory primary education in all its wards on 25th April, 1930. The District Council at Narsimhapur submitted the proposals for the enforcement of the same during 1930.

The progress of compulsory primary education in the post-Independence period may be seen in the following Table.—

Year	Institutions	Enrolment	Staff	Expenditure (including grants-in-aid)
				(Rs.)
5947-48	5	530	15	10,708
1950-51	5	684	18	13,292
1955-56	6	1,014	28	18,624
1960-61	7	1,811	60	50,205[1]
1963-64	7	2,567	63	31,706*

* Only Grants-in-aid.

Primary education during the period was passing through the stage of transition. Local bodies were entrusted with the management and maintenance of primary education. As per recommendations of the Committee of 1921, the curriculum of the primary education was revised for four years

1. Ibid, 1922-23, p. 20,

which till this time was of five years, and was put into effect from 1923-24. The special features of the revised curriculum were the introduction of the courses relating to general information, drawing, gardening, etc. The number of primary schools by 1925-26 increased to 104, and to 110 in 1930-31. The expenditure on primary education during the year 1925-26 was Rs. 63,125, while by 1930-31, it increased to about Rs. 79,000. In 1937-38, a new chapter in the history of primary education was opened with the inauguration of Vidya Mandirs under the scheme of that name. Under this Scheme a village or a group of villages within a radius of one mile, having no school, and having not less than 40 children of school-going age was intended to have a Vidya Mandir. Agriculture was mainly the basis of Vidya Mandir school courses. During the next ten years, till 1940-41, no substential progress was achieved in the field of primary education, though the expenditure on the same increased considerably. Out of the 111 primary schools, 8 were exclusively for girls, which had 518 scholars. The expenditure on the girls schools was Rs. 19,984, while on boys schools it was Rs. 98,375, approximately.

The 'forties of the Century had been a period of political unrest and momentus changes which had its own effect on Narsimhapur, as elsewhere. The policy of expansion was kept up with some characterstic changes in emphasis owing to new needs and situations. The significant events of 1942-47 had been the restoration of cut in grants to Local bodies and private institutions. History bears a testimony to the fact that prior to the attainment of Independence in August 1947, the growth of primary education had been tardy, after which new dimensions were given to education and new horizons explored.

In the year 1949-50 a new scheme for expansion of primary education was introduced. The State Government sanctioned the opening of 1,144 primary schools, with effect from 18th September, 1949 and every district was allotted about 60 schools on an average to be opened in villages having population above 500 persons. As such in 1950-51 number of primary schools increased to 151.

The post-Independence period, particularly the Plan periods, witnessed tremendous growth of primary education in the District Apart from Janpada Sabhas, private and charitable associations, Vanawasi Seva Mandal, Government Departments, *viz*., Forest, Blocks, etc., and Local bodies opened many schools in the region, which constituted a Sub-Divison of Hoshangabad District till 1956. Janapada Sabha and Government schools account for the major block of primary institutions. All the schools are under the supervision and inspection of District Education Officer, who controls the examinations also. Janapada Sabhas are given grants to the extent of 75 per cent, and municipal school 50 per cent of the admissible expenditure. As a result of planned efforts,

the primary education received a great fillip. The progress of the same may be seen from the following Table.—

Year	No. of Primary institutions		Enrolment		
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Total
1947-48	114	—	3,465	—	3,465
1951-52	151	—	4,176	502	4,678
1956-57	280	—	13,209	3,100	16,309
1961-62	305	22	20,542	8,418	28,960
1962-63	312	24	22,582	7,149	29,731
1963-64	350	26	21,596	9.518	31,114

Teachers				Grants-in-aid	Expenditure
Male		Female			
Trained	Untrained	Trained	Untrained	Rs.	Rs.
116	106	—	—	—	90,456
158	119	—	—	—	1,40 500
299	256	1	2	3,71,950	5,42,881
726	2	99	—	6,42,750	8,56,032
769	1	116	1	9 98,895	15,52,890
893	—	149	—	8,14.619	13,83,968

After the formation of the new State of Madhya Pradesh in 1956, vigorous steps were taken in the field of education, both for quantitative and qualitative progres. Up to 21st March, 1957 the course of primary education in Mahakoshal region was for four years, which was extended in that year to five years' duration, with classes from I to V. The age for entering in the school is six years, and the education is free. Collection of nominal fees was discretionary on the part of management. Girls were excluded from payment of fees in schools owned by Government and Local bodies. A unified syllabus on the pattern of basic education was adopted throughout the State in 1959. Gradual conversion of schools into the basic type was aimed at. Attempts are being made to provide schools in all villages having a population of 500 or more, thus making primary education as much within the easy reach of rural children as possible. Inspection of these schools is done by the Assistant District Inspectors of Schools/Assistant District Inspectresses of Schools, who are required to visit them, twice a year. At the end of the primary course a public examination is held by District Educational Officer, and certificates are awarded to successful candidates.

Of the 388 primary schools in the District in 1964-65, 82 were managed by the Government, 277 by the Janapada Sabhas, 17 by the municipal commi-

ttees, 10 by the Tribal Welfare Department and only 2 by the private management.

Basic Education

Basic education is now the accepted pattern of national education. It has an activity centred curriculum, where in the processes of learning are co-related to the physical and social environment of children. Education is imparted through socially useful productive activities like spinning and weaving, gardening, carpentry, leather-work, book-craft, domestic-craft, pottery, elementary engineering, etc.

The history of basic education starts with the implementation of the Vidya Mandir Scheme enforced by Government in the year 1937. The scheme as mentioned earlier contemplated that every village within a radius of a mile having no school with 40 students should have Vidya Mandirs. A four year course, mainly wedded to agriculture, was devised for Vidya Mandirs. Unfortunately, political as well as other events in the subsequent years arrested the growth and progress of these schools.

It was not till 1954 when on the recommendation of the Secondary Education Commission, along with those of the Committee appointed by the State Government on financing of education in Madhya Pradesh, it was resolved to introduce basic education in the State. As a consequence, all existing schools are being gradually transformed into basic schools (junior basic from 6 to 11, and senior basic from 12 to 14 years of age). The progress of junior basic education since the formation of the new State is given in the following Table.—

Year	Institutions	Enrolment	Staff	Grants-in-aid Rs.	Expenditure Rs.
1956-57	6	426	14	7,193	8,508
1957-58	6	448	17	9,278	9,388
1958-59	9	846	23	14,100	20,568
1959-60	9	732	21	16,240	23,200
1960-61	9	770	24	20,240	27,591
1961-62	9	986	27		
1962-63	9	813	27	16,718	24,412
1963-64	9	932	28	35,721	52,328

Secondary Education

Lower Secondary Education

Secondary education provides a very important link between primary education on the one hand and collegiate education on the other. The beginning

of the secondary education in the District is coupled with the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861. One middle school at Narsimhapur was opened in January 1863 and another at Gadarwara in May of the same year.[1]

Instructions in the schools at Narsimhapur were imparted, both through English and Vernacular medium. The number of scholars in the year 1874-75, learning through English medium was 33, while through Vernacular, 43. The fees charged in this school was Rs. 2-8-0. The Gadarwara school had no English medium, and it enrolled 48 students. In the Report of Education, 1874-75, the District was esteemed high for having best schools of the Province.

The progress of secondary education in the following decades till 1931-32 may be seen from the following Table.—

Year	Middle schools	Students (average daily attendance)	Expenditure Rs.
1881-82	2	102	3,584
1891-92	13	1,074	8,775
1901-02	6	285	4,948
1911-12	14	1,645	41,883
1921-22	21	1,772	60,931
1931-32	24	2,806	71,369

Owing to the famine that ravaged the area during the closing years of the last century, the growth of education was adversely affected and resulted in the closure of seven schools by 1901-02. Consequently, average attendance also was sharply reduced to 285 from 1,074, a decade ago. In the year 1901, the Hardwick Christian Mission School was upgraded as high school. This school was managed by a Christian Mission. The conditions gradually improved, and average attendance in the secondary schools increased to 1,645 and number of schools to 14 during the year 1911-12. The curricula of anglo-vernacular middle school were revised in 1908-09.

After the passing of High School Education Act 1922, new system and contents were given to the secondary education in the Province. The Act required the establishment of a board to regulate and supervise the system of high school examination. In 1923-24 the reorganisation reduced the middle school department from 4 to 3 years and increased the high school department from 3 to 4 classes. The first high school to get recongnition was Hardwick High School in 1929 which continued to function under the Mission management

1. Ibid, 1874-75.

until 1928, when it was taken over by the Government, and became the first Government High School in the District. It was considered to be one of the best high schools of the Province. The second school to receive recognition was the Municipal High School, Gadarwara, in 1933.

It appears that the growth of secondary education was caught in the whirlpool of political upheavals during 'thirties and early 'forties when the number of schools went down to 20 in 1937-38. During the next 10 years the number of schools for secondary education almost remained the same. As a consequence, the average attendance also went down to 2,504 in 1937. In 1947-48 the number of students was only 1,707 in secondary schools.

Secondary education consists of two stages, middle school stage (class V to VIII) and higher secondary stage (class IX to XI). Most of the middle schools have primary sections attached to them, as also the higher secondary have middle sections.

Not much progress could be achieved during the following years of Independence till 1957 in the sphere of lower secondary education. But after 1957, great strides were made under different Plans, and number of middle schools increased from 22 in 1950-51 to 28 in 1956-57, and 60 by the end of Second Plan period (1960-61). An important development took place in 1958-59 when class V was removed from the secondary stage and was added to primary stage. Class VI to VIII formed the middle stage. The growth of middle school education from 1947 to 1964 may be seen from the following Table.—

Year	No. of Schools	No. of Students	No. of Teachers	Expenditure	
				Grants-in-aid (Rs.)	Expenditure (Rs.)
1947-48	19	1,142	72	—	58,315
1951-52	22	2,773	110	—	86,126
1956-57	40	6,365	261	1,28,614	1,95,614
1961-62	72	12,063	419	3,14,780	4,37,283
1963-64	83	13,744	567	5,86,188	8,65,695

Senior Basic Education

The State Government resolved to expand the basic education in pursuance of the recommendation of the Secondary Education Commission (1951-53),

appointed by the Government of India. The District in 1956-57 had two senior basic schools, one at Singhpur and the other at Kandia. These served as models for other institutions. In this year three middle schools were again converted, introducing the basic syllabus. The progress of basic education from 1947 to 1964 may be seen from the following Table.—

Year	No. of schools	No. of scholars	No. of teachers	Expenditure Rs.
1947-48	2	403	17	15,171
1951-52	2	471	20	16,767
1956-57	5	1,001	20	50,687
1961-62	6	1,293	42	46,787
1963-64	6	1,440	46	1,04,454

Higher Secondary Education

The higher secondary stage as has been stated earlier, consists of classes from IXth to XIth, and marks the final stage of secondary education, leading to Higher Secondary Certificate Examination. All these schools are bound by the rules and regulations of the Board of Secondary Education, a statutory body, which emerged out of the three separate Boards of Education in the erstwhile merging units. The Board is responsible for enforcing syllabus, and conducting examinations under the provisions of the new Secondary Education Act, which came into force in April, 1959.

After the recommendations of Secondary Education Commission (1951-53), the State Government has been trying to introduce reform in the curriculum, etc. The high schools have been coverted into higher secondary schools and the Government High School Narsimhapur was converted into a multipurpose higher secondary school, with diversifed courses. At the higher secondary stage, subjects like music, crafts, agriculture, etc., were also introduced. The following Table shows the progress of higher secondary education from 1947-48 to 1963-64.—

Year	Schools		Students			Teachers	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Total	Male	Female
1947-48	1	—	242	20	262	16	—
1951-52	3	—	1482	44	526	51	—
1956-57	6	—	2,842	120	2,962	107	17
1961-62	20	2	5,975	843	6,818	1250	35
1963-64	20	2	7,219	1,091	8,310	293	42

It may be interesting to record here that in the post Independence period the number of high/higher secondary schools increased from 1 to 22 and students

by 31.97 per cent in 1963-64. Of the 22 higher secondary schools in the District in 1963-64, Government Multipurpose Higher Secondary School has been the pioneer in the field of secondary education having been established under Mission management as during the last century this school was upgraded as high school in 1901. It was taken over by the Government in 1922. It was converted into a Multipurpose School in the year 1958. In 1961-62 it had on its rolls 343 students in Humanities, Commerce and Science courses. The number of teachers in 1963-64 was 86. The same Mission opened another school which was also upgraded as a higher secondary school in 1958. Shrimati Bhagirathi Bai Paliwal Naween Vidya Bhavan Higher Secondary School started in 1952 by the New Education Society, Jabalpur in this District, imparts instructions only in the faculties of Agriculture and Science. Total number of students in each faculty increased from 90 and 27 students, respectively, in 1961-62 to 137 and 80 students, respectively, in 1963-64. Government Raghav Higher Secondary School Bohani established in 1954, was named after an ex-malguzar, who donated his property for opening agriculture high school in the village, Bohani. It was converted into Agriculture Higher Secondary School in 1961. The number of students on the rolls, in 1961-62 was 204 and teachers 16.

Collegiate Education

It was after an educational history of about a century that the efforts of the District Education Society, Narsimhapur bore fruit in 1958 when a college was set up at Narsimhapur. Other degree colleges also came into being later, at Gadarwara, and Barman. All these colleges are affiliated to Saugar University.

Government Degree College, Narsimhapur

The college was established by the District Education Society, Narsimhapur in November, 1958 with 6 teachers and 41 students. Initially, the college was started only with arts and commerce faculties. In the year 1960-61 Law faculty was also added to the college. The science faculty, with facilites of engineering and medical groups was added in the year 1961-62 and 1962-63, respectively. The following Table shows the progress made in respect of number of scholars, staff and expenditure from 1958-59 to 1964-65.—

Year	Scholars					Staff	Expenditure Rs.
	Arts	Commerce	Science	Law	Total		
1958-59	25	16	—	—	41	6	8.259
1959-60	61	53	—	—	114	10	39.210
1960-61	62	61	—	—	123	10	130.575
1961-62	125	49	—	19	193	16	183,189
1962-63	126	92	46	18	282	—	125,306
1963-64	166	81	69	9	325	—	113,692
1964-65	193	112	103	—	408	21	102,000

This college has a well equipped library with 3,042 books. Now the management and supervision of this college rests with the State Government.

Narmada Nagar Palika Mahavidyalay, Gadarwara

This institution was established by the Nagar Palika Parishad, Gadarwara in July, 1962. It was started with 45 students in arts and 21 students in commerce faculties. In the year 1963-64 the college had on its rolls 139 students later increased to 151 in 1964-65 with 10 teachers. However, the expenditure decreased from 1,00,805 in 1962-63 to Rs. 41,000 in 1964-65. It has only two faculties of higher education upto bachelors' degree in Arts and Commerce. English, Hindi, Sanskrit, Economics, History and Political Scince are taught in arts faculty, while English, Hindi, Economics, Commercial Geography, Business Organisation, Advanced Accountancy, Auditing and Banking in commerce faculty.

Shri Newas Rao Telang New Education Society College, Barman.

This college was started by New Education Society, Jabalpur at Barman in July, 1964 to meet the demand of students in rural areas for higher education. Shri Newas Rao Telang, a reputed Jagirdar and philanthropist of this District donated a spacious building, costing about Rs. 2 lakhs for the college. This college has two faculties. In humanities English, Hindi, Sanskrit, Economics, History and Political Science are taught while in Science Faculty Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics, Zoology and Botany are taught.

From the foregoing account it is obvious that sources other than Government have largely been responsible for the development of education in Narsimhapur. The position of institutions managed by different agencies in 1963-64 may be seen from Table XII in Appendix.

National Cadet Corps, Scouting and Auxiliary Cadet Corps

The organisation of Nationel Cadet Corps was started by the Central Government with a view to inculcating a spirit of discipline and leadership among the youth of the Country. Similary, the Auxiliary Cadet Corps intends to develop in high school students a sense of patriotism, team spirit, corporate life, self-confidence and social service with a sense of dignity of labour. For the first time military training was introduced in the year, 1949-50 in the Government High School Narsimhapur, when three troops of the cadet with total strength of 44 were organised. The number of the cadets gradually increased when after 1954-55 more troops in other schools of the District were organised. From 63 in 1951-52 the number of cadets increased to 10,518 in 1963-64. The District by this time could have both junior and senior division in Infantry Wing with Rifles Company. Presently there are 14 institutions which provide Auxiliary Cadet Corps training for boys and girls. A provision has been made for opening a separate unit of N.C.C. for girls only in this District. The annual training camps of senior and junior divisions were also organised

by the Circle Commander at different places. Now the military training has been made compulsory in all secondary schools and for students of higher classes in all the institutions of the District.

Physical Education

Physical education is a compulsory subject at all stages of the education in the District. Every school provides physical eduction to its children in the form of drill, games and athletics. The secondary schools are provided with trained Physical Training Instructors. The District and Tahsil Olympic Associations encourage sports, held at annual meet in schools of all the grades and categories in the District. Grants-in-aid are given to the private institutions providing physical education, like *Vyayam shalas*, *Akharas*, Clubs, etc., for the physical well-being of the people.

Training of Teachers

Prior to the formation of new Madhya Pradesh there was no institution for the training of teachers in Narsimhapur. But in 1960-61 two schools were opened, one for males at Gadarwara, and the other for females at Narsimhapur with 176 males and 24 female teacher trainees, respectively. Presently, about 65 per cent of the total number of the teachers are trained.

Oriental Schools

Prior to the formation of this District in 1956, the area had two Sanskrit *Pathshalas*. Both were unaided and one of them was unrecognised. The enrolment was 59 students only. Pandits were engaged for teaching Sanskrit. In the year 1957-58 the enrolment was 63 which subsequently increased to 77 in the year 1961-62, and 82 in the following year. One more Sanskrit school came into being in 1961-62. The expenditure on these institutions increased from Rs. 6,858 in 1961-62 to Rs 8,253 in 1962-63. These schools provide teaching of Sanskrit language on traditional lines.

EDUCATION FOR HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

Reformatory Borstal Institution

There is one reformatory borstal institution at Narsimhapur which aims at the treatment of the juvenile offenders through education and training, to make them self supporting and useful citizens after their release. It provides some sort of technical training in blacksmithy, carpentry, and farming. In addition to this, instructions are given in reading, writing and citizenship. The enrolment which stood at 124 in 1956-57 decreased to 102 in 1960-61 and to 74 in 1964-65. However, over the same period the expenditure and number of trained teachers increased respectively, from Rs. 10,108 and 4 in 1956-57 to Rs. 11,043 and 6 in 1964-65. Though the inmates of the Institute undergo

education in full primary course yet no formal examination is held, and as such no primary certificate is given.

ADULT LITERACY AND SOCIAL EDUCATION

With the progress of democracy the average adult becomes an important factor in politics; the quick changes in science and society render the elementary education of his childhood insufficient for the adult. To educate the child is to educate the future citizen, but to educate an adult is to educate the immediate citizen. Thus, the education of adults and their training in citizenship assumes immediate importance. The modern society needs not much of adult educatation but social education that enables an adult to have a productive civic life. It was to provide such an education to the masses that the Government of Madhya Pradesh launched its Social Education Scheme in May, 1948.

According to the scheme, illiterate men and women between the ages of 14 to 40 were to be enrolled into a five point programme of literacy, education in health and hygiene, training for trade, profession or calling, citizenship and healthy recreation so as to eradicate illiteracy among the masses as expeditiously as possible. Three fold media, *viz.*, human medium, literature, and audio-visual aids were adopted to promote the programme.

An additional District Inspector of schools was appointed with headquarters at Hoshangabad, who looked after Narsimhapur, as at that time Narsimhapur was a sub-Division of Hoshangabad District. The Government appointed in 1952 a committee to review and consolidate the progress of social education and to chalk out the future line of action. As a consequence, a Department of Social Welfare was created in 1954 and the whole scheme, so far looked after by the Education Department, was transferred to this newly created Department. The following Table shows the number of literacy centres and literacy classes held during the years 1959-60 to 1962-63.—

Year	No. of Classes			Enrolment			Expenditure
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Rs.
1959-60	24	11	35	494	200	694	—
1960-61	35	17	49	618	338	956	8,031
1961-62	32	23	55	631	342	973	8,031
1962-63	19	21	40	475	423	898	6,114

Now a Social Welfare Officer has been posted in this District who is responsible for the programmes of social education. He is assisted by Social Extension Organisers for education. At village level there are Gram Sevak, Gram Sahayak and teachers, some of whom are employed part-time in the programme of social uplift.

The programme of social education is executed through literacy classes, community centres, youth clubs (including gramraksha dal), farmer's clubs, and *mahila samitis* and libraries which are an essential agency for mass education. During the period of First Plan and Second Plans, 68 reading-rooms, 11,308 youth clubs, etc., were organised. In order to help neoliterates in retaining their literacy, a follow-up programme consisting of community listening, *kisan melas*, dance and drama festivals, films-shows, etc, are organised regularly in the Development Blocks.

For the eradication of illiteracy among the adults, Social Education Certificate Courses were launched, commonly known as summer, monsoon and winter courses.

During the Second Plan period, 1,368 men and 466 women were imparted these certificates. During the Third Plan period, till 1964-65, 824 males and 587 females completed these courses.

Audio-Visual Media

Social education imparted through human medium was further advanced by utilising audio-visual means, which included films, film-strips, epidiascope and magic lanterns, radio broadcasts, song, drama, *bhajan* and *kirtans*. A van was provided to the District Organiger for audio-visual programmes. This medium has become very popular. During the year 1963-64, 36 programmes were arranged and cultural squads gave 103 programmes in the District during the year 1964-65. During the same year 93 dramas were also staged. The installation of community listening sets, which are an important medium of spreading mass literacy, was increasingly resorted to under Second Plan. In 1964-65, 60 radio-centres were set up in the District. The progress of social education during the Second and Third Plan periods may be seen in Appendix-A, Table XIII.

To prevent neo-literates from relapsing into illiteracy, the Department arranged for the follow-up education. For the purpose, Department of Education under took the work of production and distribution of suitable literature, special books, pamphlets and periodicals. In some villages small libraries containing follow-up literature were opened. The following Table shows the number of libraries opened.—

Year	Libraries	Reading rooms	Books and magazines
1961-62	5	4	7,267
1962-63	72	11	13,200

LIBRARIES

The District at present is served by six principal public libraries. Apart from these, various educational and other institutions have their own libraries. Of the principal libraries, Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Gadarwara and Peace Memorial Library of Narsimhapur are the pioneers in the field. The Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Gadarwara was established in 1913-14 with the help of public contribution. Originally it was started in a rented building. The library is equipped with more than 4,000 books. The library also manages various social functions.

The Public Library, Kareligunj is another library which was established in 1928-29, and is managed by Janapada Sabha, Narsimhapur. The library contains about 1,000 books.

Janata Pustakalya, Narsimhapur, came into existence in March, 1958. It contains 3,000 books. It is an aided library. Janata Vachnalaya, Khamariya established by Janapada Sabha, Narsimhapur in September, 1956 only contains about 700 books.

Apart from these, all the secondary schools and colleges in this District have libraries of their own. There are four circulating libraries in the District.

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

Very little is known of the medical facilities which were available in the pre-British rule in the areas comprising the present Narsimhapur District beyond a general statement that the traditional *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* systems were practised by certain persons. The advent of the British in the early part of the 19th Century led to the gradual introduction of the Western system of medicine in the District through the establishment of Allopathic hospitals and dispensaries. Little appears to have been done for providing medical facilities to the general public in the District until the formation of the Central Provinces in the year 1861 when a Medical Department was organised with a Surgeon-General as the head of the department. He was assisted in every district by a Civil Surgeon, who, besides looking after medical relief, was also in charge of matters relating to public health.

In 1901 the District medical administration consisted of the Civil Surgeon at Narsimhapur. An Assistant Surgeon assisted him at the District Headquarters Hospital, Narsimhapur. A male and a female Assistant Medical Officers were also on the staff. There was a dispensary at Gadarwara manned by an Assistant Medical Officer. *Vaidyas* and local *Hakims* (*Unani* practitioners) were also practising in the villages in addition to local bone-setters and *dais*. Their profession was hereditary. Mention may also be made of one very important charitable institution known as the Sonakiya Charitable Dispensary which was rendering free *Ayurvedic* treatment at Narsimhapur.

The organisation of the Medical Department was followed by the establishment of a main dispensary at every district headquarters and, from time to time, of branch dispensaries at some other places. The main dispensary was looked after by the Civil Surgeon himself while the branch dispensaries were placed in the charge of Indian doctors, designated as hospital assistants. The cost of the branch dispensaries was defrayable partly from funds raised by local subscriptions and partly from grants or aid given by the Government. The arrangement was that wherever the prescribed quota of private support was forthcoming for the opening of a dispensary building or the maintenance of the medical establishment, a corresponding amount of aid was given by the Government. Each dispensary of this kind had a committee of management,

known as the Dispensary Fund Committee, which consisted of the Civil Surgeon and some local influential persons. This committee had entire control over the expenditure of dispensary funds. A slight change in the apportionment of dispensary expenditure between the State and local resources was made in 1866-67, when it was decided that all charges on account of professional supervision, such as the Civil Surgeon's allowance, the salaries of the hospital assistants and the like, alongwith the cost of certain European medicines, would be defrayed from the general revenues while all other expenses on account of dressers, compounders, Indian drugs, etc., would be borne by local contributions. Under this apportionment about three-fifths of the entire cost of a dispensary fell upon the State treasury and the remaining two-fifths lay on local resources.[1]

It was found that the difficulty in the way of establishing such dispensary institutions lay not so much in the lack of subscriptions but in the scarcity of trained Indian doctors. This difficulty was partly met by the establishment of Medical School at Nagpur in the year 1866-67 for the training of Indians in the profession of medicine. The result was that by 1876-77 the dispensaries for the relief of the indigent sick existed, as a rule, at all district headquarters and tahsil stations in the Central Provinces.[2] At this time only two dispensaries, *viz.*, Narsimhapur (Main) and Gadarwara were in operation in Narsimhapur District.[3] The total number of indoor and outdoor patients treated in both these dispensaries in the year 1876 was 9,941. For a considerable time there was a strong prejudice among the people against western medicines with the result that for a time, these dispensaries were not popular. But in course of time this prejudice was overcome and the dispensaries gained popularity.

On the Ist of April, 1885, the management of all dispensaries with a few exceptions was made over to the Local bodies exercising administrative control over the areas. The total number of dispensaries by the year 1900 remained at four, namely, Narsimhapur Main, Chhindwara (Chhota), Gadarwara and Tendukhera and the position was maintained till the period 1915, when a dispensary at Barman was opened. In addition to these, dispensaries run by Mission, Police Department and Jail Department and a dispensary supported by the coal company at Mohpani were also functioning in the District. The public dispensaries had accommodation for 64 in-patients, the Narsimhapur Main Dispensary having 28 beds and that of Gadarwara 22. The police and private dispensaries were accommodating 44 in patients. The daily average number of indoor patients at the public dispensaries during the decade ending 1901 was 27 and that of out-door patients 300. The average number of patients treated annually during the years 1901-04 was 48,000. The expenditure

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1866-67, pp 85-86.
2. Ibid, 1876-77, p. XXVIII.
3. Ibid, Appendix V-2.

incurred in 1904 totalled Rs. 10,000 of which the greater part was provided from provincial and local funds. Nearly 2,000 operations were performed annually during the decade ending 1901.

The dispensary at Mohpani collieries in the Narsimhapur District was closed in 1927. One more dispensary at Sainkhera, was opened in 1939, thus increasing the number of public dispensaries to six which provided treatment to 97,041 patients-both indoor and outdoor. The total bed strength remained at 74.

The salient features of the year 1939 in connection with Medical and Public Health included (i) the steps taken by Government in extending medical relief to rural areas by (a) the establishment of *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* dispensaries, (b) increasing the number of Allopathic dispensaries, and (c) subsidising Allopathic, *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* medical practitioners, and (ii) appointment of a committee for improvement of all the bigger hospitals and the Medical School of the Provinces. Subsidised medical practitioners could be appointed in the areas under the control of District Council, Narsimhapur. The assumption of office in the Province by the Congress Ministry in 1938 witnessed some efforts in extending medical relief in the District. A dispensary was opened in the following year at Karakbol in Narsimhapur Tahsil. A Committee was appointed in the year 1937 to examine the indigenous systems of medicine practised in the Province and it was recommended, "that medical relief on *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* lines should be extended on a large scale wherever possible," and that, "one *Ayurvedic* or one *Unani* dispensary should be established for every area ten miles in radius."[1] Although these recommendations were accepted by the Government in principle, little was done to implement them, largely because of the demission of office by the Congress Ministry. It was only after the ministry had resumed office in 1964 that action was initiated in this direction.

With the launching of Five Year Plans rapid strides have been made in the expansion of medical and public health facilities in the District. Medical and Public health relief has been given new drive, direction, vigour and content. These include establishment of primary health centres, family-planning centres, maternity and child-welfare activities, training programmes, arrangements for rural water-supply and various disease control measures.

The system of administration and control of hospitals and dispensaries has already been alluded to. Although this system operated for quite a ong time, but it failed to provide financial stability to these institutions. Government was quite alive to this issue and ultimatly decided to take over their

1. Report of the Committee appointed to examine the Indigenous Systems of Medicine practised in the Central Provinces and Berar, p. 1.

entire management. The Narsimhapur Main Hospital was the first to be provincialized. The following Table brings out the details of this process:—

S. No.	Name of Hospital Dispensary	Management Before Provincialization	Date of Provincialization
1.	Narsimhapur Main Hospital	Dispensary Fund Committee	1.4.1958
2.	Kareli Dispensary	Municipal Committee	1.8.1958
3.	Gadarwara Hospital	Municipal Committee	1.8.1958
4.	Barman Dispensary	Janapada Sabha, Narsimhapur	1.9.1958
5.	Tendukheda Dispensary	Janapada Sabha, Gadarwara	1.11.1958
6.	Sainkheda Dispensary	Janapada Sabha, Gadarwara	1.11.1958
7.	Gotegaon Hospital	Municipal Committee	1.3.1959
8.	Barehta Dispensary	Janapada Sabha, Narsimhapur	1.2.1960

VITAL STATISTICS

In the beginning the agency established for registration of vital statistics consisted of the municipal police in municipal towns and the district police and Patwaries or village accountants in rural tracts. It was, however, found difficult to secure accurate statistics, and the results obtained under this system could not be pronounced altogether satisfactory. Many of the returns received were on the face of them found incorrect. To quote an extract from the Sanitary Commissioner's Report where he observed :[1]

"The returns from towns are probably nearer the truth than those from rural tracts, but from neither can much reliable information regarding the rates of increase and mortality of the population be extracted."

In later years also it was reported that registration work could not receive the attention it required. In most municipal towns it was entirely left in the hands of the subordinate staff and the sanitary sub-committees were not paying any attention to the matter. The indifference shown by these bodies towards this important work resulted in inaccurate registration.[2] The Census Reports of the State have also commented upon the validity and accuracy of the vital statistics. In 1931 Report following observations were made :—

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1867-68, p. 78.
2. Annual Public Health Report, 1923, p. 11.

"The opinion expressed at past Censuses was that whereas reporting of actual occurrences is fairly accurate the classification under the diseases which caused death is very unsatisfactory. The figures (relating to excess of births over deaths and growth of population) prove that for purposes of demography the vital statistics must be treated with care."

As regards the present arrangements for the registration of vital statistics, the responsibility in rural areas rests with Kotwars, police stations and primary health centres. These agencies submit monthly information to the Civil Surgeon, Narsimhapur, who compiles and submits the returns to the Deputy Director of Health Services, Jabalpur. In urban areas Municipal Boards have been entrusted with this work.

The following Table gives annual statistics of births and deaths alongwith their rates for the period 1951 to 1962. It will be evident from the Table that both death and birth-rates have declined, but the decline in case of death-rate has been most conspicuous, which more than halved during the period.

Year	Births	Birth-rate per mille	Deaths	Death-rate per mille
1951	11,989	38.98	11,385	27.23
1952	13,017	49.46	12,992	32.66
1953	12,683	43.98	19,588	41.94
1954	12,974	48.76	11,935	31.73
1955	14,336	51.41	8,695	11.41
1956	15,291	53.97	11,499	23.76
1957	16,456	—	8,373	—
1958	15,540	—	12,424	36.3
1959	19,178	48.7	8,840	22.4
1960	19,410	44.7	9,934	18.3
1961	20,535	49.3	10,108	24.3
1962	19,256	25.0	8,964	10.9

Infant Mortality

The infant mortality rate is a sensitive index of the public health conditions in any place. In the earlier years the main causes of the infantile mortality both in urban and rural areas were prematurity, insanitation, malnutrition, diarrhoea, respiratory diseases and fevers. Later, the problem of infant mortality started receiving considerable attention and in the year 1923 a definite advance was made in many towns by the institution of midwife or female Sub-Assistant Surgeon for the visiting of mothers and infants. In Narsimhapur, the services of the lady Sub-Assistant Surgeon and a midwife were utilized for maternity care. The problem of child-welfare and infant mortality has been

receiving more attention lately. In the past few years there has been a general reduction in the incidence of severe cases in areas where ante-natal services have been made available through the agency of primary health centres and sub-centres. Maternity and child-welfare services provided by the primary health centres are supplemented by services provided by welfare extension projects and by voluntary organisations. The sub-joined Table indicates infant mortality and the rate per 1,000 live-births in Narsimhapur from 1957 onwards.

Year	Infant Mortality	Infant Mortality per 1,000 Live-Births
1957	2,697	141.9
1958	2,510	146.0
1959	3,525	182.5
1960	3,759	185.8
1961	2,545	124.0
1962	3,696	191.3
1963	1,907	132.4
1964	2,519	167.6

DISEASES COMMON TO THE DISTRICT

After reviewing the cases that were treated at the medical institutions in Narsimhapur District, it is seen that the most common diseases recurring here are fevers, malaria, respiratory diseases including tuberculosis, bowel complaints, etc. Apart from these, the epidemics of cholera, small-pox and plague have also been prevalent in varying degrees in the District. The Army Sanitary Commission while reviewing the Central Provinces Sanitary Report for 1879 had considered that the four most important causes of human mortality were, cholera, small-pox, fevers and bowel complaints and that fevers and bowel complaints, which had a close relation to scarcity, were more fatal in the towns.[1] Tetanus is particularly common in the District. Brief account of the common diseases is given below.

Fevers

Fevers have been the most common disease of the District and carried off a larger proportion of the population than any other disease. Typhoid group of fevers is most important. The average mortality during the five years (1875-79) from fevers in Narsimhapur was 22.61.[2] In the year 1880 mortality rate from fevers was 25.96 per mille.[3]

1. Annual Report of the Sanitary Commissioner of the Central Provinces for the year 1880, p. 4.
2. Ibid, p. 20.
3. Ibid, p. 20.

It was observed that the death-rate from fevers was greater in excessive rainfall and if the rainy season was followed by dry hot months and cold nights fever prevailed with severity. The districts in Vindhyan and Nerbudda Divisions suffered most. As a result of an enquiry made by the Civil Surgeon, Narsimhapur it was found that fevers were the largest single cause of mortality. The following are the results of his enquiry.—

Cases Investigated		Death due to					
By	Total number	Fevers		Bowel Complaints		Other Causes	
		No.	Percentage	No.	Percentage	No.	Percentage
Civil Surgeon	1,599	807	50.5	207	12.9	585	36.6
Police	1,599	950	59.4	142	8.9	507	31.7

About the mortuary statistics of the year 1890, Surgeon Major Franklin observed,[1] "Making due allowance for defective registration, fever is still the chief cause of mortality. As usual it was most prevalent in those parts of the country which are flat, the soil black cotton, and the village surrounded by cultivated fields upon which water lies during the rains and early part of the cold season. The excessive fatality, however, is due to the habits of the people, it being the common custom among them to abstain from food till the fever has passed off, and partly to the low physique of the lower classes who are illfed and are insufficiently clothed." During 1891 to 1931, the deaths from fever were never below 12.46 per mille. The year 1918 was the most unhealthy on record, the total deaths from fever being 28,598 or 87.81 per mille showing an exceptionally high mortality. Now fevers have lost their former edge. The average number of deaths from fevers during the four years 1957-60 was 5,259.

The fever which caused the largest mortality was of malarial nature and was seen in its chronic and wasting form and less often in its acute remittent form.

A malariological survey of the District conductad late in 1910 indicated that "excluding the hyperendemic area of the hills, the disease is widely prevalent throughout the cultivated tract."[2] The malarial fever appeared in 1910 in epidemic from. It was most marked in Chhota Chhindwara, Piparia, Rampur, Chawarpatha, Dhobi, Bamhni, Sankal and Tendukhera, barring the Mohpani area. Earlier in 1902 a minor epidemic swept over Narsimhapur and had most of the features of the 1908 epidemic. The Assistant

1. Ibid, 1890, p 9

2. Report upon Malaria in The Central Provinces, 1912-13, p. 16.

Surgeon who made malariological survey of Narsimhapur recorded that[1] due to water on the surface after rains and nature of the soil, there had been favourable anopheline development in the area and average spleen-rate was 23 per cent in the heavy black soil of Narsimhapur Tahsil and 38 per cent in villages Ranipaparia, Chilachowan, Kararia, etc.

A spleen recensus was taken in 1914, after an interval of three years, of certain villages in the open wheat tract which had earlier returned a high spleen-rate. A high degree of endemic malaria was found throughout the greater part of the District, even in the open cultivated areas. This was considered to be an important factor in retarding the natural growth of population in 1911 Census.[2]

In the previous years anti-malarial measures consisted of the sale, at a nominal cost, of quinine tablets to the public at medical institutions and through the agency of Local bodies. The distribution of quinine became almost free in hyper-endemic areas of the Province by both the public health and revenue staff. Free distribution was also made out of the Government of India gift of quinine in the whole Province according to the relative severity of the disease in the districts during 1940. In the previous year, i. e., 1939 every important village was provided with a quinine-vendor, who was usually the local school teacher. In the later years many anti-malarial measures have been taken to control the disease. In addition to free distribution of quinine tablets, resochin and other anti-malaria drugs, the National Malaria Eradication Programme was extended to this District from 1953-54, with its headquarters at Sohagpur, District Hoshangabad.

Indoor insecticide spraying with D.D.T. for interruption of active transmission by mosquitoes and detection of fever and malaria cases and treatment by surveillance agency are the *modus-operandi* of the Programme. Both forms of surveillance, active and passive, are resorted to for timely detection and treatment of lurking malaria cases. Active surveillance means house to house visits by the surveillance workers engaged by the Malaria Unit for case detection and treatment while the case detection by the hospitals, primary health centres, etc., where patients visit for treatment, is called passive surveillance. The unit located at Narsimhapur has covered 972 villages of the District. It has also distributed Paludrin and Mepacrin tablets.

Respiratory Diseases

Among the respiratory diseases, the incidence of pulmonary tuberculosis is high in the District. The respiratory diseases were responsible for 215 deaths,

1. Ibid, p. 16.
2. Ibid, p. 17.

i.e., 0.74 per mille in the District in the year 1921. In the year 1927, 277 deaths were reported from these diseases. In recent years also it has been responsible for considerable mortality. The disease is prevalent in both rural and urban areas where ill-ventilated and crowded houses contribute to its increase. Preventive measures for the control of tuberculosis have been started in the District only a decade back by the introduction of mass B.C.G. vaccination in 1955. The work was done only in the following years in Narsimhapur in this respect and is shown in the Table felow.—

Year	Tested	Vaccinated
1955	36,305	13,431
1959	46,761	16,385
1960	27,899	10,559
1961	37,034	15,150

After 1961, B.C.G. teams resumed their activities in 1963. Steps being taken to improve the environmental and socio-economic conditions of the people through Community Development Programme are expected to reduce the incidence of T.B.

Trachoma

Apart from the normal measures undertaken for the treatment of this disease, an Eye Relief Camp was organised at Gotegaon in the year 1962, where 1,698 patients were treated and 226 operations were performed.

Cholera

It is known to have visited the District in an epidemic form in the years 1833-34, 1837, 1869 and taken a heavy toll of human lives. Later, in the year 1876, cholera instead of abating as was due in the normal cyclical course, prevailed in Narsimhapur with considerably increased epidemic severity in May accounting for 4,192 deaths, the rate of mortality being 12.35 per 1,000 population. It is said to be the worst attack of cholera. The mortality rate from cholera in 1882 was 2 99 per mille. In the year 1887 the incidence of mortality was 7.27 per mille. Cholera again prevailed for four months in 1890 and affected 179 towns and villages causing 1,255 deaths which was thrice the mortality of any other district from this cause. Cholera was severe during 1891, 1892, 1895 and 1897 when rate of mortality was recorded as 5.88, 2.97, 6.08 and 8.41 per mille. From 1898 to 1904, cholera was absent. During the first three decades of the present Century this scourge took toll of more than 1,000 persons only in the years 1906, 1913, 1919 and 1921. In the year 1947 only 163 fatal cases were reported. Now cholera has almost disappeared from the District.

In the past the diseas was disseminated either by emigrants or at fairs and religious congregations. Impure water and unsatisfactory conservancy have been other contributory causes.

Several measures, both preventive and curative, have been taken from time to time to check the ravages of cholera. The earlier measures included disinfection of wells, distribution of anti-cholera medicines and application of Special Cholera Regulations in affected areas. Later, anti-cholera inoculations were also started. This was followed by the opening of infectious diseases block in the Main Hospital near about 1946. Whenever cholera raised its ugly head all the precautionary measures were intensified. Sufficient stocks of disinfectants and cholera drugs used to be maintained by the Municipalities Janapada Sabhas and police station houses to cope with the requirements. Propaganda work was carried on to educate the people by organising lectures and magic lantern shows. Cholera Campaign Week is also organised in the District almost every year when anti-cholera inoculations are carried out on a mass-scale in all the road-side and river-side villages and in villages having a bad cholera history. In emergency, help from all agencies, i.e., medical, revenue, police, private medical practitioners, *Vaidyas*, *Hakims* and trained inoculators is combined for combating the disease.

Small-Pox

Small-pox has been known to rage in this District as elsewhere almost from times immemorial. The earliest recorded evidence available about this disease is for the year 1874-75, when it prevailed in the District in the form of severe epidemic, the number of deaths being nearly 2,000 in 1874 and in the following year, i.e., 1875 in more severe form when small-pox fatalities numbered 5,800 being equivalent to mortality rates of 6 and 17, respectively, per mille per annum. Although in the period that followed ravages caused by it were not so heavy, nevertheless it appeared in the District time and again causing considerable mortality. In 1881-83 the epidemic was in a less virulent form. These three years and 1879, were the only years in which more than a hundred deaths were recorded from small-pox. During the long period of 40 years, i.e., from 1891 to 1931, small-pox claimed more than 100 lives only in five years, i.e., 1906 (582), 1913 (344), 1914 (323), 1927 (225) and 1928 (135). In recent years small-pox cases have been reduced to a very great extent.

Year	Number of Deaths
1954	70
1955	49
1956	Nil
1957	46
1958	41
1959	67
1960	2
1961	29
1962	17
1963	119
1964	Nil

The only known preventive measure against small-pox is intensive vaccination (both primary and re-vaccination) which was undertaken in the District from time to time. The vaccination measure was supplemented by the enforcement of the Small-pox Regulations and the observance of Vaccination Week almost every year. From the 15th December, 1962, the National Small-pox Eradication Programme sponsored by the Government of India, has started functioning. The Unit with headquarters at Hoshangabad covers three districts, *viz.*, Hoshangabad, Betul and Narsimhapur. At present, the programme extends to 973 villages of the District.

Since the inception of the Scheme till the end of January, 1964, 48, 657 primary vaccinations and 293,022 revaccinations were given. Thus, 82.8 per cent of the population of the District was brought under the coverage of the Scheme.

This Scheme is being implemented under the supervision and control of the Civil Surgeon, Hoshangabad. The main object of the Scheme is to eradicate the scourge of small-pox. Before actual work of vaccination is taken up some sort of intensive propaganda is done by the Health Educator. The Scheme is executed in the District through four Sub-Units located at Kareli, Gotegaon, Chawarpatha and Sali-Chouka. Vaccinators and enumerators have been provided with cycles.

Plague

The first recorded appearance of plague in the District refers to the years 1903 and 1904 when total number of deaths from this disease was reported to be 2,559 and 4,262, respectively, and mortality rates were 8.15 and 13.58 per mille. The years 1910-1912 were favourable for plague when it prevailed in a virulent from and claimed 1,374, 2,428 and 1,551 lives. Thereafter, till 1931, it was severe only in 1917 and 1918 when 2,694 and 800 fatal cases were reported. In other years only some sporadic cases of plague have occurred. From 1953 the District has been completely free from this epidemic.

Whenever plague occurred suitable preventive measures, such as inoculation, evacuation, isolation, disinfection, rat-killing work, etc., were undertaken according to the intensity of the epidemic. The rat destruction work was effected through various devices such as cynogassing of rat burrows in houses, baiting of rats with barium carbonate, etc. Emergency Plague Regulations were enforced in all the infected areas. Inoculations in later years started gaining ground, as the people realised its value as a preventive measure, and voluntarily came forward for inoculation.

ORGANISATION OF MEDICAL DEPARTMENT

The activities of the Medical Department in the District are in charge of the Civil Surgeon, who works under the administrative control of the Director

of Health Services Madhya Pradesh. One post of Assistant Civil Surgeon has also been provided. He is assisted by 16 doctors out of whom seven are of the rank of Assistant Surgeons. Five of the seven Assistant Surgeons are posted at Gadarwara, Gotegaon, Dhamna, Kareli and Sali-Chouka. The Civil Surgeon visits Jail Hospital and Police Hospital once or twice a week. The Civil Surgeon supervises the working of the primary health centres, family-planning clinics, and co-ordinates the public health activities of the Local bodies and the Development Blocks. The Medical Officer of a primary health centre is also the health officer and exercises the statutory powers of the health or sanitary authority in his area.

The primary responsibility for the maintenance of public health in urban areas continues to rest with Municipal Committees, which are at present constituted for the towns Narsimhapur, Gadarwara, Kareli and Gotegaon. These Local bodies have their own health staff for discharging this responsibility.

The responsibility for the improvement of the health conditions in rural areas rests with the Janapada Sabhas, which have their own Sanitary Inspectors for supervising the sanitary work carried out by the Gram Panchayats.

In the following paragraphs an account of the main Hospitals of the District has been given.

Main Hospital, Narsimhapur

The Hospital was originally built in the year 1890. One block comprising six wards of one room each was added in 1914. X-Ray Plant of 15 M. A. capacity was installed in the Hospital in 1956. An isolation ward consisting of two units is attached to the Hospital. The State Government has accorded administrative approval for the construction of new hospital building. The new building will accommodate 80 to 100 indoor patients. Till 1965-66, two isolation wards and two paying wards were constructed. Work on other sections of the Hospital was in progress.

Civil Hospital, Gadarwara

This Hospital came into existence after the Main Hospital. The building is quite old. For constructing a new hospital, land acquisition proceedings have been completed and stage I estimates have been prepared. The new building will accommodate a child welfare centre also.

In addition to the above there are some medical institutions which are run by departments other than the State Medical Department.

Police Hospital, Narsimhapur

This Hospital is in the charge of an Assistant Medical Officer who is assisted by one compounder and one male nurse. The Hospital contains 12

beds for treating indoor patients. This Hospital is meant for treatment of Home Guards, Railway Police and Police contingent posted in the District and their staff.

Jail Hospital, Narsimhapur

This Hospital was established in 1895 with six bedded capacity. A full-time Assistant Medical Officer supported by one compounder and one male nurse is looking after the Hospital.

Railway Hospital, Narsimhapur

This Hosptial has been started since July, 1960 and is meant for the treatment of railway personnel, but emergency cases from general public are also attended to without any extra charge. Funds are allotted by Jabalpur Railway Division on proportional basis. One Medical Officer is looking after the Hospital.

Primary Health Centres

Simultaneously action was taken to extend medical relief to the rural areas. The relief was provided in the concrete shape of primary health centres with sub-centres attached to them. They were started in the Community Development Blocks. A primary health centre is a small unit which provides an integrated form of medical care both curative and preventive to the people living in the area. It serves as the focus from where health activities radiate into the area covered by the Development Block. The multifarious activities of the centre include imparting education on health, controlling communicable diseases, performing vaccination and inoculation, looking after sanitation, etc.

To begin with, a primary health centre at Gotegaon was established on 1st April. 1956 and within a year another centre was started at Harrai Haveli (Chawarpatha). By the end of the year 1963, all the Development Blocks were provided with primary health centres with sub-centres attached to them. The Table given as Appendix. shows the details of six primary health centres (as on 1-1-1964) and dispensaries working in the District together with particulars of population covered, number of beds and medical staff available at each of them.

The Table below contains the yearwise details of outdoor and indoor patients treated in different hospitals and dispensaries of Narsimhapur from 1951-52 to 1962-63.

Year	Outdoor patients	Indoor patients	Total
1951-52	73,871	830	74,701
1952-53	81,991	937	82,928
1953-54	83,380	1,090	84,470
1954-55	79,108	847	79,955
1955-56	82,635	870	83,505
1956-57	97,960	948	98,907
1957-58	1,32,631	1,427	1,34,058
1958-59	1,37,035	1,489	1,38,524
1959-60	1,46,709	2,181	1,48,890
1960-61	1,49,792	2,930	1,52,722
1961-62	1,65,521	3,652	1,69,173
1962-63	1,73,441	3,442	1,76,883

Expenditure

The total receipts during 1927 by all the hospitals and dispensaries aggregated Rs. 26,850 and the amount spent was of the order of Rs. 23,650, leaving a balance of Rs. 3,200. The corresponding figures for the year 1946 were Rs. 46,159, Rs. 36,527 and Rs. 9,632, respectively. In recent years there has been phenomenal growth in expenditure, i.e., in the year 1964-65, amount spent aggregated Rs. 4,05,035 with Government hospitals and dispensaries having the largest share. Details regarding expenditure incurred on medical and public health schemes included under Plan and Non-Plan Budgets and implemented during Second Plan and four years of the Third Plan are embodied in the Statement given in Appendix.

Ayurvedic Hospitals

Ayurvedic hospitals occupy an important place in the system of medical relief in the District. By far they outnumber Allopathic institutions. Post-Independence era witnessed the establishment of these institutions in remote and outlying areas of the District. By the end of 1963, 54 *Ayurvedic* hospitals or dispendaries were rendering free medical relief in the District; out of those 3 were Government owned, 6 aided and the rest non-aided. The Table given in Appendix A-XVII gives the details of these institutions.

Besides three more *Ayurvedic* dispensaries have been established during the year 1964-65 at Bagaspur, Pansi and Kathotiya.

Maternity and Child Welfare

Each primary health centre opened in the Block Development area is inclusive of domiciliary maternity care in which the health visitor, who is a

midwife, specially trained in the problems of the health needs of the mother and child, plays a vital role. This facility is being supplemented by the training of indigenous *dais* at these centres and other centres. *Matru grihas* have also been provided in 20 villages, where women can go for their confinement. Services of indigenous *dais* are available at these *grihas*. Established by the Central Provinces and Berar Matru Sewa Sangh in 1947, Matru Sewa Sanghs at Kareli and Barman have accommodation of two maternity beds each. Narsimhapur and Gadarwara hospitals have separate maternity wards with four beds each.

Medical Facilities in Rural Areas

Primary health centres, as already described, are primarily meant to cater to the needs of rural areas. Majority of *Ayurvedic* dispensaries are also located in rural areas. Two Health Assistants posted at Narsimhapur in 1956 and at Gadarwara in 1958 look to the rural health work in their respective tahsils.

Private Medical Practitioners

At present there are 12 Allopathic medical practitioners in the District including 6 at Narsimhapur, 2 at Kareli, 3 at Gadarwara and 1 at Gotegaon. The two private Allopathic dispensaries, *viz.*, Dr. D. G. Belapurkar Dispensary, Narsimhapur and Dr. Y.S. Chouhan Dispensary, Narsimhapur are providing medical facilities to the public. In addition one *Ayurvedic* dispensary is also serving the people.

Training of Nurses and Dais

The training of nurses and midwives has necessarily a high priority in the programme for developing health services. With this aim in view, an Auxiliary Nurses and Midwives Training Centre which is attached to the Main Hospital, Narsimhapur, has been started from February, 1963. The Centre has a capacity of imparting training to 20 candidates. The duration of the training is two years. Each candidate is given a stipend of Rs. 50 per month during training period. The staff sanctioned for the Training Centre is one sister tutor, two staff nurses and two domestic servants. Similarly, a *dai's* training centre is also functioning in the Main Hospital since 1957. The centre has capacity for training six *dais* each year. Each trainee is awarded a stipend of Rs. 20 per month The capacity and stipend have since been raised to 12 and Rs. 30.

Indian Medical Association Branch

The Narsimhapur branch of the Indian Medical Association is the only institution in the District where subjects relating to medical and public health are discussed periodically among its members.

Indian Red Cross Society Branch

The District branch of Indian Red Cross Society was established on 15th October, 1958. It is presided over by the Collector. Civil Surgeon acts as Secretary. Members, both official and non-official, are appointed every year.

The Branch has made good progress in educating the public about the utility of this organisation. It came to the rescue of fire-stricken people of villages Samanpur and Bhama and raised funds for Kashmir and Assam flood relief. Health propaganda was organised by the Branch on the occasion of celebration of Red Cross Week in the District in the year 1959. The Branch has also donated a sum of Rs. 400 towards the construction of children's park which was opened on 2nd June, 1960. The fund for the Indian Red Cross Society is being collected through the sale of Red Cross flags, certificates, and voluntary donations.

Family Planning

The scheme for family planning was extended to the Narsimhapur District in 1958 when a rural family planning clinic was started at Gotegaon on 28th February, 1958. Another rural clinic was added at Chawarpatha on 2nd July, 1960. Gadarwara had its rural clinic opened on 1st July, 1960, which was upgraded to urban clinic on 1st October, 1963. The year 1961 saw the opening of one rural clinic at Sali-Chouka and one urban clinic at Narsimhapur, on 1st October of the year. Subsequently, a rural clinic was set up at Kareli on 1st December, 1963. The scheme was further expanded by opening rural family planning clinic sub-centres at Kamod, Kuklah, Bagaspur, Karapgaon, Basuriya and Chichali during the year 1963-64. A mobile unit is also stationed at Narsimhapur since October, 1963. The activities of these clinics included education on family planning through lectures, film-shows, distribution of contraceptives, sterilisation, etc.

Family planning programme is gradually gathering momentum in the District. This will be borne out by the fact that as against 174 persons contacted for family planning education in 1959 as many as 67,884 persons were contacted in 1964. The number of active cases following family planning methods increased from 38 in 1959 to 660 in 1962 and 6,312 in 1964. The same trend is confirmed by sterilization operations which increased from 13 in 1959 to 57 in 1962, 98 in 1963 and 300 in 1964.

SANITATION

The Civil Surgeon simultaneously performs the duties of the Public Health Officer in which capacity he advises the Collector on matters of sanitation and works with him for ameliorating the sanitary conditions in the District.

Till the year 1858, nothing had been done for sanitary reform outside a very few large cities and cantonments. But from this time upto 1889, sanitary reforms were attempted in all the towns that had any kind of municipal organisation. These municipal committees, like their sister institutions in the rest of the Province were entrusted with the conservancy of the towns and in order to give professional support to their efforts in this direction, the Civil Surgeon was appointed their *ex-officio* Sanitary officer of the local and municipal committees. He made the conservancy and sanitation of the town his special care and also advised the civil authorities on all problems of sanitation in the outlying towns.[1] The Municipal Committees of Gadarwara and Narsimhapur were constituted in the year 1867, under the then Municipal Act. Later in 1877 Municipal Committee was constituted in Chhota Chhindwara. The main functions of these municipal committees in their respective territories included maintenance of proper sanitation of the town, and hygienic disposal of town refuse and nightsoil.

Rural Sanitation

Attempts were made in the year 1865-66 for introducing a rough conservancy system in rural areas as well. A small beginning was made when Village Conservancy Rules and Brief Practical Sanitary Suggestions were prepared and their Hindi translations were supplied to the principal landholders.[2] During the year which followed a Sanitary Commissioner was appointed for the whole Province for supervising and advising district officers on all matters connected with conservancy, sanitation and hygiene, his agency at the district level being the Civil Surgeon. In the next decade, some more literature on public health such as, Public Health Rules, Practical Hints on Sanitation, Sanitary Primer, etc., was published in all the languages of the Province and circulated in every town and village for familiarising the people with principles of sanitation. The heads of the various communities were charged with the duty of seeing that these were carried out as far as possible. But while in the municipal areas there was some machinery to enforce the observance of these rules, there was no agency whatsoever in other areas. To meet this difficulty, rules were framed in 1885-86 under the Land Revenue Act. by which an obligation was imposed on village Headmen of keeping their villages in good sanitary condition[3]. Since no improvement of a permanent character was effected in villages, these rules were amended in 1888-89 for stimulating the action by the village Headmen in matters of sanitation. Another sanitary reform introduced in the same year was the constitution of Sanitary Board as a consultative and executive agency in the Province.[4] Another step taken in improving village sanitation

1. C. P. Administration Report ,1864-65, p, 57.
2. Ibid, 1866-67, p. 89.
3. Ibid, 1887-88, p. 82.
4. Ibid, 1888-89, p. 87.

was the extension of Village Sanitation Act, 1902, in some selected villages in the District. Under this Act, village sanitation panchayats were established, their functions being the construction and repairs of tanks and wells, conservancy, clearing of village sites, etc. This Act was in force till the beginning of this Century. Following the establishment of village panchayats under the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act, 1946, (I of 1947) all the village sanitation panchayats were abolished in 1948 and their functions relating to village sanitation, etc., were taken over by the newly constituted bodies.

Rural sanitation formed one of the planks of the village uplift programme, which was launched by the Congress Ministry in 1939. An organiser for village uplift work was appointed in the Province in the same year and his activities included, conducting of village uplift training classes at district places. Each district and tahsil had a village uplift committee, which carried on its activities embracing all aspects of village life.[1] Later, the activities of these committees were taken over by Rural Development Department and subsequently by planning and Development Department after the launching of the First Five Year Plan.

Water Supply

Arrangement for supply of pure and adequate drinking water is one of the most critical factors in prevention of diseases, particularly water-borne diseases. In the District, drinking water is obtained from wells, rivers, nullahs and *jharnas*. Although several steps have been taken from time to time to improve urban as well as rural water supply in the District, but these activities were confined to the construction, renovation and repairs of old and new wells. The water supply facilities, both in rural and urban areas are through public wells, hand-pumps and river.

The question of piped water supply for the town of Gadarwara was taken up as early as in 1921, when the Sanitary Engineer had reported on this scheme and his proposals as finalised then, were to cost Rs. 2,20,000 for total supply of 1,35,000 gallons a day or 15 gallons per head per day for the population of 9,000. But this scheme could not be implemented.[2] It is only recently that the urban water supply scheme for Gadarwara town was finalised and construction started during 1964-65. The scheme is being executed by the Public work Health Engineering Department on behalf of the Municipal Committee, Gadarwara. Similarly, the Sanitary Engineer had recommended a water supply scheme for the town of Narsimhapur designed to supply 1,80,000 gallons a day with the estimated consumption of 15 gallons per head per day for a population of 12,000. The cost was estimated at Rs. 2,40,000, but the scheme also met the same fate.

It may be interesting to note that in the year 1880, of the 971 villages in the District, 333 or 34 per cent had masonry wells, 347 villages were obtaining

1. Triennium Report of the General Administration of the Central Provinces, 1937-40, pp. 77-78.
2. The Central Provinces Annual Public Health Report, 1921, p. 51.

water from *kutcha* wells, 5 from tanks, 252 from streams and 57 from streams which used to dry in the summer season. In that year 8 masonry wells were constructed and 6 simply sunk in the earth which gave a percentage of 1.4 of villages in which construction of new works was in progress.[1] The number of wells used for domestic purposes in Narsimhapur District during 1953-54 was 1,886, which went up to 2,243, 2,737 and 2,560 in 1955-56, 1957-58 and 1962-63, respectively.

In rural areas efforts are being made to improve water supply by constructing and renovating drinking water wells. Under the sanitation programme of the Community Development Blocks, old and insanitary wells are repaired, and made sanitary. Every well is disinfected twice a year. The target is to provide at least one drinking water well in each village where none exists at present by the end of Third Five Year Plan. Now hand-pumps are also getting popular.

Vaccination

In the early period the vaccination work was done by vaccinators under the superintendence of Civil Surgeon who worked under the overall supervision and control of the Sanitary Commissioner. Later, the Civil Surgeon came to be assisted by an Indian Superintendent of Vaccination. Hospital Assistants were also required to take up vaccination as a regular part of their work in pursuance of an order issued in 1876-77. In that year the total number of persons vaccinated was 13,837 and total strength of vaccinators was eight.

Vaccination became compulsory under the Vaccination Act, 1880 in the municipal towns of Narsimhapur, Gadarwara and Chhota Chhindwara. At the beginning of the current Century it was carried out all over the District in the open season. Till this period eight to nine per cent of the population was being vaccinated in the towns annually. In the District as a whole some 19,000 persons were vaccinated in 1903-04. Over 80 per cent of the children born and surviving to one year of age have been vaccinated since 1891.[2]

The vaccination operations were handed over to the Local bodies during 1907-08 and were pushed up. A bill to amend the Vaccination Act of 1880 was passed into law in 1931 so as to make it applicable to the rural areas also. On the formation of Janapada Sabhas, the supervision and control on vaccination staff was transferred to them. The Secretary of the Public Health Standing Committee became then the *ex-officio* Superintendent of Vaccination in place of the Civil Surgeon.

At present vaccinations are carried on by vaccinators employed by Municipal Boards and Janapada Sabhas and those working under National Small-Pox Eradication Programme. They have been attached to primary health centres. Village-wise registers of vaccination work are maintained.

1. Annual Report of the Sanitary Commissioner of the Central Provinces, 1880, p. 32.
2. Narsimhapur District Gazetteer, p. 201.

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Labour Welfare

It is quite natural that the District like Narsimhapur having predominantly an agricultural economy should contain much greater number of agricultural labourers than those engaged in industries. For the welfare of employment in agriculture, the Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Ordinance, 1962 (No. 4 of 1962). was promulgated by the Governor of the State of Madhya Pradesh. It was promulgated with a view to fixing the minimum rates of wages in certain Scheduled employments including employment in agriculture. When the Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Act of 1962 (No. 16 of 1962) was passed, the said Ordinance was repealed. Like the Ordinance this Act too came into operation from 1st January, 1959. Thus minimum rates of wages, in respect of employment in agriculture (Scheduled Employment No. 1 part II), were fixed as shown below. The whole of the State of Madhya Pradesh is divided into three zones for the purpose of enforcing these minimum rates of wages and all the places of the District are included in zone[1] II and zone III.

Class of Employees	Zone II	Zone III
Casual Employees	Rs.	Rs.
1. Adult Male	1.15 per day	0.90 per day
2. Adult Female	0.90 per day	0.75 per day
3. Adult Employees on a monthly contract for a period of one month or more	25.00 per month	20.00 per month

Zone II comprises all places included within municipal limits of a municipality or a notified area with a population of 5,000 and above but below

1. Zone I comprises the areas included within the municipal limits of a corporation or a municipality with a population of 50,000 and above and the places within 5 miles from the limits of such corporation or municipality.

50,000 and the places within 5 miles from the limits of such municipality or notified area. Zone III comprises all places not included in Zones I and II. The Act further fixed the minimum rates of wages payable to a child at 50 per cent of the minimum rates of wages fixed for adults. Madhya Pradesh Government has on 25th November, 1965, appointed a committee to hold enquiries and advise it in the matter of revision of these minimum rates of wages.

Tahsildars and/or Naib Tahsildars have been notified as ex-officio Inspectors to look after the proper working of this Act in respect of agricultural labourers.

Employment in Scheduled Industries

For the purpose of guaranteeing welfare of labourers employed by the industrial concerns, the Government at the Centre as well as in the State have taken many speedy statutory measures and have made them applicable to the industrial concerns of the District as well from time to time. Beginning of such statutory welfare measures coincides with the opening of a few seasonal factories, cotton-ginning factories at some places in the District during the concluding years of 19th Century and the early years of this Century. The Indian Factories Act of 1881 (No. XV of 1881) regulated the employment of children in big factories. Under this Act the employers were required to provide fencing for machinery for protecting the workers against injury. In subsequent years the scope of this Act was considerably widened. It became greatly comprehensive in the year 1948, when the Government of India passed the Indian Factories Act, 1948. Chapter V of this Act deals with the welfare facilities to be provided by the employer to his workers. This Act is applicable to all the factories in the District employing 10 or more workers and using power and 20 or more workers without power. The working of the Act in the District during recent years is tabulated below :--

Years	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964
No. of inspections	15	31	6	39	23
No. of prosecutions	3	—	—	2	—
No. of convictions	—	—	—	—	—

Senior Inspector of Factories, Jabalpur Division, Jabalpur, of the office of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Madhya Pradesh, Indore, is responsible for the administration of this Act in the District. The Inspector periodically visits the District for the purpose of ensuring proper working of this Act.

Workmen's Compensation Act 1923 has made it obligatory for the employer to pay a compensation to his employee whose monthly wages do not exceed Rs. 400 and who has been rendered unable or incapable to work due to injuries received by him while on duty, or to the employee who has been

1. Madhya Pradesh Gazette, Part 1, 24th December, 1965.

suffering from occupational disease. If due to these reasons death of an employee occurs, his dependents are to be paid compensation by the employer. The responsibility for the administration of this Act rests with the Assistant Labour Commissioner, Jabalpur Division, Jabalpur, who has been invested with the powers of Workmen's Compensation Commissioner (Labour Court, Jabalpur) under Labour Department Notification No. 6366-423 XVI, dated 30th August, 1962. During the years 1954 to 1964 there was only one fatal case received in the year 1964 by the Judicial authority. No amount of compensation was ordered till the 23rd September, 1965.

Madhya Pradesh Maternity Benefits Act, 1958, ensures payment of cash maternity benefits to women employees in the factories for certain periods before and after confinement. Nine months' service preceding the date of notice is a qualifying condition for the receipt of such benefits. The administration of the Act is entrusted to the office of the Chief Inspector of Factories Indore on behalf of which, Senior Inspector of Factories, Jabalpur Division, Jabalpur carries the responsibility in this District under the Act.

The Minimum Wages Act, 1948 (XI of 1948) and Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Act, 1962 (No. 16 of 1962), which came into operation from 1st January, 1959, have fixed minimum rates of wages for certain Scheduled employments in the State. For this purpose the State is classified into 4 areas, *viz.*, A, B, C, and D. The places in the District are classed in C and D areas (except for employees in tobacco manufactory). The minimum rates of wages for the employments in any rice-mill, flour-mill or *dal*-mill (Scheduled employment No. 2), or in any oil-mill (Scheduled employment No. 5), or under any Local Authority (Scheduled employment No. 6), or on construction or maintenance of roads or in building operations (Scheduled employment No. 7), or in stone-breaking or stone-crushing (Scheduled employment No. 8) are tabulated below :—

Category of employees	Areas		Basis of payment of rates of wages.
	C Having a population of 5,000 and above but below 50,000	D All places excluded from C	
	Rs.	Rs.	
Clerical	50.00	45.00	Per Month
Skilled	3.00	2.75	Per Day
Semi-Skilled	2.25	2.00	Per Day
Unskilled			
Male	1.37	1.25	Per Day
Female	1.12	1.00	Per Day
Child	1.00	0.87	Per Day

For purposes of the minimum rates of wages for employment in tobacco (including bidi-making) manufactory (Scheduled employment No. 6), the places in the District fall under areas B, C, and D. The minimum rates of wages for these are tabulated below :—

Category of Employees	Area			Basis of payment of rates of minimum wages
	B Places including an area of five miles from municipal limits of Narsimhapur, Gadarwara and Gotegaon	C Other places not included in A and B but having population exceeding 5,000	D Places not covered by A, B and C	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1. Bidi-Roller	1.56	1.50	1.44	For 1,000 bidis
2. Bidi-Sorter and Checker	70.00	65 00	60.00	Per Month
3. Bundle Wrapper and Packer	60 00	55.00	50.00	— do —
4. *Bhattiwala*	45.00	40.00	35.00	— do —

The provisions of The Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act, 1958 (No. 25 of 1958), were applied to the local area of the town of Narsimhapur, with effect from 2nd January, 1959. These came into force in the local areas of the town of Gadarwara in 1960.

The Act regulates the working conditions of the employees in shops and other commercial establishments with regard to workers' daily and weekly attendance, holidays, leave, overtime work and pay, etc. The Inspector of Shops and Establishments, Jabalpur, periodically visits the places for proper administration of the Act. All cases under this Act are tried by the Magistrate First Class. The Table below shows the working of the Act in the District.

Year	No. of Inspections	No. of prosecutions launched	No. of convictions
1959	372	19	—
1960	230	4	13
1961	1,014	122	102
1962	1,378	100	41
1963	1,519	18	69
1964	839	—	14

The provisions of The Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, are applicable to most of the industries in the District employing not more than 100 workers. The Madhya Pradesh Industrial Employment (Standing Order) Act, 1961, is applicable to all industries employing more than 20 workers. The following categories of services have been declared to be public utility services under the Industrial Disputes Act (1) service in Municipal Committee, (2) Railway Service (3) Service in industry supplying power, light or water to the public (4) Public motor transport (5) Postal, telegraph or telephone services, etc.

Besides, a number of Central as well as State Acts are made applicable to the industries of the District for the welfare of workers. Schemes under the Employees' State Insurance Act and Employees' Provident Fund Act, have not as yet been implemented in this District.

Judicial set-up for the enforcement of labour laws in the District of Narsimhapur has been as follows.

Besides an Industrial Court and Industrial Tribunal both at Indore, having jurisdiction over the whole State of Madhya Pradesh, there is one Labour Court, constituted under the Madhya Pradesh Industrial Relations Act, 1960, working at Jabalpur, from May, 1962. Its jurisdiction extends over the local areas corresponding to the revenue districts included in the Revenue Divisions of Jabalpur and Rewa. The Presiding Officer of this Labour Court functions as the Commissioner for the Workmen's Compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1926, as Authority under the Payment of Wages Act, 1936 and Minimum Wages Act, 1948.

The Presiding Officer of this Labour Court has also been conferred powers of the Magistrate First Class for the trial of criminal cases originating from the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, the Payment of Wages Act, 1926, the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, the Indian Factories Act, 1948, etc.

From May, 1965, an Additional Labour Court with its headquarters at Jabalpur to deal with cases pertaining to State sphere and Central sphere under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, is functioning. Its jurisdiction extends over the whole State of Madhya Pradesh.

The industrial labour class of the District has been mostly engaged by the bidi factories, *dal* and oil-mills, tile factories and saw-mills in the District. Among all the labourers, those employeed in bidi factories are organised. They have formed 3 unions to carry out welfare activities and protect their interests. Rashtriya Bidi Kamgar Sangh, affiliated to the Indian National Trade Union Congress is working at Narsimhapur. It was registered on 30th November, 1957. Bidi Mazdoor Sangh of Kareli was registered on 4th

January, 1961, while the Rashtriya Bidi Kamgar Sangh at Gadarwara was registered on 30th October, 1958. But none of these unions is recognized as a respresentative union under the Industrial Relations Act.

PROHIBITION

Since its advent, to the year 1904, the British administration in the Central Provinces of which Narsimhapur was one of the districts, looked upon Excise Tax as the most fruitful source of revenue. A change in the excise policy of the Provincial Government was noticed from the year 1905. The Provincial Government adopted a different excise policy primarily aiming at temperance. Collection of revenue was its secondary object, A drastic change in this policy was again brought about in 1921, when the Government of the Central Provinces and Berar accepted the recommendations embodied in a resolution adopted in August, 1921, by the First Reformed Legislative Council of the Province. The resolution recommended the Government of the Province to stop the sale of country liquor through the whole Province within the reasonably shortest possible period. Thus the old excise policy aiming at temperance was replaced by a new one which aimed at gradual and ultimate prohibition. This can be said to be a mild beginning of the movement towards prohibition in the Province. Since then prohibition has become the ultimate goal of the excise policy of the Provincial Government. Though the then Government declared its inability, "to define any specific period within which that goal could be attained",it explained administrative measures to be followed to achieve that aim. In order to reduce drinking facilities as much as possible the Government declared that it intended to follow much more vigorously the measures, such as, reduction in number of shops, hours of sale, strength of liquor, limitation of supplies, facilities at fairs and festivals,[1] etc.

The Provincial Government by its Resolution No. 250-195-XI dated 1st June, 1935, appointed an Excise Committee "to review the working of the policy of Prohibition, its effect on the finances of the Province, the success or failure of the measures taken to enforce it, and the question whether any modification of those measures is advisable in the light of experience."[2] The investigations of the Committee revealed that some of the restrictive measures resulted in reducing the consumption of licit liquor and sympathetically increasing the consumption of illicit liquor. This involved enormous loss of revenue in the opinion of the Committee. Further the Committee recommended that administrative control lost due to the prohibition policy should essentially be re-established.

1. Report of the Madhya Pradesh Prohibition Enquiry Committee, 1951, p. 5.
2. Ibid (Quotation).

This Excise Committee Report of 1937 was shelved, when in the year 1937, Congress party came in power. The new Government immediately decided to adopt a policy of immediate prohibition. A Bill to that effect was introduced by the Government in 1937. The Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act, 1938 (VII of 1938), passed by the provincial Legislative Assembly was introduced formally from 1st April, 1938, in some parts of the Province including Narsimhapur Sub-Division (Now Narsimhapur District) of Hoshangabad District. Sale and consumption of *charas* were also prohibited here with effect from 1st January, 1939. Thus the District of Narsimhapur became dry in respect of country and foreign spirits, toddy and *charas*. Warehouse at Narsimhapur was closed from 1938.[1]

The policy of prohibition suffered a set-back duing the period of World-War II under the Section 93 regime. An amendment of 1944 to the Prohibition Act empowered the Provincial Government to declare by Notification the withdrawal of the Act of Prohibition even from dry areas. Extension of Prohibition Act was suspended. The prohibition policy was resumed, when the Congress party again returned to office in the month of April, 1946. From 1st October, 1946, the whole of Hoshangabad District was brought under the Prohibition Act. Thus during the years 1938 to 1946 all adjoining districts, except Sagar on the north were wet and only Narsimhapur was a dry area.

Subsequently when the Government found that under the pressure of Prohibition Act many of the liquor addicts had taken to drugs, the Government banned the sale and consumption of opium, *ganja* and *bhang*, with effect from 1st January, 1948.

Objectives of Prohibition Laws

As has been made clear earlier, the first legislative measure towards movement of prohibition was adopted in 1921, when excise was "transferred" to popular Minister under Dyarchy. Then on behalf of the Government the Minister for Excise declared, "In view of the strong Indian sentiment in favour of total abstinence and in view of the dangers of abuse, the Government is prepared to accept prohibition as the ultimate goal of its Excise[2] Policy". Thus with a limited objective of respecting strong anti-drink sentiments of Indian people and restricting dangers and abuses of country liquor, the Government accepted the policy of gradual and ultimate Prohibition.

In 1938, the popular Government thought this policy of gradual and ultimate prohibition as futile. It replaced this by the policy of immediate prohibition. The main objective of this new policy was "to ameliorate the

1. C. P. Excise Administration Report, 1938-39, p. 7.
2. Quoted in Report of the Madhya Pradesh Prohibition Enquiry Committee, 1951, p. 5.

moral, social, economic and physical conditions of the people".[1] This objective prompted the Government to enforce the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act. As regards the objective of the Act itself it may be stated that the said Act did not aim at absolute prohibition. In fact, its real aim was "to permit the use and prohibit the abuse of intoxicants". The preamble to the Act expressly exempted the use of liquor for various purposes. The Act itself contained a whole chapter on Exemptions. Section 29 (2) and section 32 (a) of the Act contemplated the use of liquor for some purposes. The Nagpur High Court, in its judgement in the Prohibition case dated 16th April, 1951, said "What the law in substance proposes to prevent is what it regards as the abuse of intoxicating liquor and not its use in a proper way for a proper purpose."[2] Thus "Prohibition prohibited supply of intoxicants and consumption by persons but made differential exemptions of articles and persons, with a view to permitting the use and preventing the abuse."

Measures Taken to Administer the Act

With a view to enforcing effective administration of the Act following measures were taken (i) Excise Commissioner was appointed to be the Prohibition Officer and the District Excise Officer, Excise Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, *Jamadars*, Peons and every Officer of the Forest Department above the rank of the Deputy Ranger within the limits of his jurisdiction were appointed prohibition officers. Besides, the District Superintendent of Police, Additional District Superintendents of Police, Police Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Head Constables, Assistant Commissioners, Extra-Assistant Commissioners, Tahsildars, Naib-Tahsildars, and Revenue Officers were also invested with certain powers under the Prohibition Act.

(ii) Anti-Drink committees of non-official members were organised in each Municipal and Notified Area and each Revenue Inspector's circle. These were expected to carry on prohibition propaganda, to secure co-operation of social reformers, to render all assistance to the official preventive staff in prevention, detection, investigation and prosecution of excise crimes.

(iii) Every official of the Government, Local body and village headman, watchman, accountant, etc., were entrusted under the Act with a duty to give immediate information to the proper authority of all breaches of the Act in their respective areas.

(iv) The duties of prevention, detection and prosecution of offences under the Act were entrusted to the Police Department for their rigorous enforcement. Excise staff in the District was to assist them in their duties in respect of pre-

1. Ibid, p. 1.
2. Ibid, P. Kodand Rao's Report, p. 71.

vention and detection of offences. Subsequently, from the 1st April, 1946, a special police staff was employed exclusively for prohibition work. It was working till 1950.

(v) Since the close of the year 1939, two paid propagandists were posted in the District. They delivered lectures, showed magic lantern slides and posters, organised caste *panchayats* and 14 thrift societies. Talkie-film shows were also arranged. Their posts were later on abolished. The work of prohibition propaganda subsequently formed part of the Adult and Social Education Scheme from the year 1948. The Social Education Department continued to depict evils of drinking through lectures, magic lantern shows, etc., at various centres. In addition, Tribal Welfare Department also helped in explaining advantages of abstinence to villagers and citizens, since 1953. A Prohibition Propaganda Week began to be celebrated annually from 1st October, 1946 in this District also. With a view to creating strong public opinion in favour of prohibition, intensive anti-drink propaganda through posters, leaflets and prohibition films was undertaken during this Week.

(vi) As a safeguard against smuggling and in order to minimise the temptation to visit liquor shops across the prohibition border, all shops within 5 miles of dry area were closed. In the year 1939, this belt of shopless zones was extended to 10 miles.

(vii) Subsequently, since 1946, the Government made it penal for a person to be in an intoxicated state, whatever be the source of supply of liquor.

(viii) In order to check the misuse of medicinal and toilet preparations for purposes of intoxication, Prohibition Amendment Act, passed by the Legislative Assembly, was brought into force with effect from 14th November, 1953.

(ix) Rules in respect of foreign liquor permits for private consumption were made more stringent. The conditions regarding production of certificates of Civil Surgeon were made compulsory for issue of permits for consumption of foreign liquor since 1953.

Mahua Rules were brought into force in the dry area of Narsimhapur since 1959. Under these Rules no unauthorised person could possess, sell, import, export or transport *mahua* flowers, the chief base, employed for the manufacture of liquor. The Rules aimed at minimising chances of illicit distillation.

Difficulties Encountered

Illicit distillation has been the major problem of the Excise Department. The Nayudu Committee, appointed in 1937, "to review the working of the policy of Prohibition", etc., and the Prohibition Enquiry Committee, 1951,

after investigations reached the conclusion that illicit distilation has become a cottage industry run on new methods which are almost perfect. The figures of cases of illicit distillation detected in this region during 1938-1950 range from only 2 to 8, but it is accepted by all the concerned authorities that out of every 100 illicit distillations carried on generally in the State, only one case is actually detected.[1] The Table below shows the number of offences detected under this head, and under violation of *Mahua* Rules during the years 1958-59 to 1964-65.

Years	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
No. of Illicit distillation cases	90	135	143	110	137	113	151
No. of Violations of *Mahua* Rules	—	3	--	19	—	12	14

As has been mentioned earlier the dry District of Narsimhapur was surrounded on three sides except northern by wet areas. Though shopless zones were created in the wet districts of the State, agreement could not be reached[2] in respect of such shopless zones with the princely State of Bhopal bordering Narsimhapur on its west. This gave chances for the smuggling of liquor and temptation to liquor-addicts to visit that wet area to quench their thirst. In 1946, when Prohibition was introduced in Hoshangabad District, dry area was created on the southern border. Since then the District remained surrounded by wet areas on its eastern and western borders. In spite of this the figures of offences detected under this head are encouraging. During the years 1958-59 to 1964-65 there were only 2 cases detected and those too in the year 1959-60 only.

In the year 1939, though the consumption of liquor was prohibited, opium, *ganja* and *bhang* were not prohibited, in the District. In the first year of prohibition official report stated that "the highest consumption of opium was in Narsimhapur Sub-Division (of Hoshangabad District) amounting to 16 seer per hundred of population."[3] It was attributed to the prevalence of the old *madak* habit. Possibly, it may be true that this consumption to some extent was due to liquor addicts, who might have turned to consume opium, on account of non-availability of liquor. By the close of the year 1938, 7 of the 19 opium shops were closed. Excise staff was strengthened to enforce the provisions of the Opium Smoking Act to detect the smuggling of opium from the adjoining state of Bhopal. Though special measures were taken to

1. Report on the Madhya Pradesh Prohibition Enquiry Committee, 1951, p. 37.
2. C. P. Excise Administration Report, 1939, p. 5.
3. Ibid., 1938, p. 3.

reduce the consumption of opium in Narsimhapur, it was admitted in 1940 that in this District there were 1,193 known *madak* smokers or 37.2 per ten thousand[1] of population against 3.5 in the rest of the Province. In order to check this, one more opium shop was closed, two paid prohibition propagandists were entrusted with the work of propaganda against smoking of opium, and shopless zones of 10 miles in all the adjoining districts within the State were created. Smuggling of opium was large from the State of Bhopal. In the year 1939, it was stated, "systematic efforts were made to curb this injurious habit in Narsimhapur Sub-Division, which is the black spot of the province in respect of opium smoking, with as many as 40.3 *madak* smokers per 10,000 of population on a conservative estimate against 3.4 in the rest of the province."[2] The Excise staff was strengthened by one Inspector, four Sub-Inspectors and 14 Peons to eradicate this evil.

In addition to this, an intensive campaign against the habit of opium smoking was launched. Nine anti-opium committees were formed in the District. With the assistance of these and the Congress Committees, propaganda work was intensively carried on by delivering lectures, showing magic lantern slides, and distributing leaflets on the dangers of opium issued by the Director of Public Health. "The anti-opium smoking committee of Kareli also administered a proprietary medicine to opium-smokers to reduce the craving for smoking opium." The cumulative effect of these measures was reflected in the consumption of opium. It decreased by 28.3 per cent. In 1946 again it was found that opium consumption in the District increased by 30 per cent. Thus the evil of opium-smoking was most pronounced[3] in the region where there were 1,026 known *madak*[4] smokers or 30.7 per ten thousand of population as against 2.1 in the rest of the Province. In that year 109 cases of opium-smoking were detected. A special staff of one Inspector and four Sub-Inspectors continued to be posted in the District to fight against the evil. The Table below exhibits number of opium offences detected in this District from the year 1959-60 to 1964-65.

Years	No. of Cases of Opium Smuggling	Other Offences	Offences Relating to *Madak*	Total
1959-60	4	13	4	21
1960-61	6	—	4	10
1961-62	—	5	2	7
1962-63	3	3	—	6
1963-64	12	4	26	42
1964-65	6	—	3	9

1. Ibid, 1940, p. 13.
2. Ibid, 1939, p. 13.
3. Ibid, 1946, p. 17.
4. *Madak*-smoking had made the name of Narsimhapur familiar even in Geneva prior to 1931 (Census of India, 1931, Vol. XII, C.P. & Berar, Part I-Report, p. 35.)

Under Poppy-Husk Rules the detection of cases was as follows :—

Years	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
	15	2	2	3	14	21

Besides opium, *ganja* was also being consumed in the District. It was found in 1946 that consumption of *ganja* increased by 23 per cent.[1] Consumption of *bhang* showed a small increase in the first year of prohibition but official records did not show that ex-addicts had taken to *bhang* habit. The Table below exhibits the offences under Hemp Drugs in the District during the years 1958-59 to 1964-65.

Years	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
Illicit cultivation of *ganja*	—	1	1	8	—	—	13
Other offences	3	12	3	—	5	50	2

Degree of Success Achieved

Prohibition Act was avowedly passed in the hope that the poor people would forswear drink. But that hope has not been fulfilled to any appreciable extent. In the beginning official reports were very enthusiastic in stating that "there was nothing to indicate that previous liquor consumers had taken to other intoxicants and that the constructive side of the policy of prohibition, *viz.*, formation of thrift societies was successful in the District, where 14 such societies were organised."[3] Further it was claimed that "persons who used formerly to drink are reported to be eating better food and live more contented life with a marked improvement in their health."[4] But reports for subsequent years are conspicuously silent either about such success in the District in particular or about the working of thrift societies.

The Prohibition Enquiry Committee, 1951, also opined[5] that "Prohibition has not led to the elimination of the drinking, but may have led to reduction in the consumption of liquor" and it has helped in increasing "malpractices of illicit distillation, smuggling and consumption of deleterious substances."

1. C. P. Excise Administration Report, 1946, p. 17.
2. Ibid, 1938, p 10.
3. Ibid, 1939, p. 8.
4. Ibid, p. 9.
5. Report of the Madhya Pradesh Prohibition Enquiry Committee, 1951, p. 92.

The policy of prohibition "has not led to any betterment of the economic, social and physical condition of the drinking classes." However, these observations made by the Committee are related to the conditions then prevalent in the State as a whole. The District of Narsimhapur probably cannot claim to be an exception to these observations.

The Table below gives results of prosecutions under the Prohibition Act in the years commencing from the year 1958-59 to 1964-65 :—

Year	No. of Persons			Fine	Amount Paid as Reward to Informers, Captors, etc.
	Prosecuted	Convicted	Imprisoned	Rs.	Rs.
1958-59	136	159	128	3,133	24
1959-60	180	143	133	2,987	52
1960-61	164	113	94	3,050	19
1961-62	125	156	146	4,235	366
1962-63	151	237	150	3,755	—
1963-64	127	208	199	2,330	—
1964-65	184	248	154	2,472	605

The income and expenditure of the Excise Department of the District headed by the District Excise Officer during the years 1958-59 to 1964-65 are tabulated below.—

In Rs.

Year	Excise Revenue	Expenditure
1958-59	47,591	25,429
1959-60	1,950	23,669
1960-61	1,778	25,011
1961-62	1,901	28,111
1962-63	3,012	24,337
1963-64	4,613	29,861
1964-65	15,881	32,958

ADVANCEMENT OF BACKWARD CLASSES AND TRIBES

There has always been some difficulty in formulating precise definition as to the classes, castes and tribes to be included under the classification "Backward Classes and Tribes". This difficulty has been reflected in the indiscriminate use of these words in the records of the Provincial Government of the pre-Independence period. In general, these words are used to denote all the classes or castes and tribes which, from times immemorial, have formed the lower and the lowest strata of social organisation. While describing the amelioration schemes started by the then Provincial Government, these classes

are called as "Depressed Classes", "Aboriginals", "Hill and Criminal Tribes." From the beginning of the year 1935, the terms "Depressed Classes" and "Criminal Tribes" were replaced, by the 'Harijan' and "Wandering Tribes", respectively,[1] and these Classes and Tribes began to be included in the term 'Backward Classes.'[2] Some of the castes of this group popularly known as Harijans were later on classed as the "Scheduled Castes," when the Government of India (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1936[3] came into force. According to the Schedule to this Order only 10 castes of this District were declared as Scheduled Castes. Since then "Backward Classes" began to be included in the term "Scheduled Castes and Backward Communities."[4] When in 1950, the Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1950, came into operation, 11 castes in the District were declared to be Scheduled Castes. According to the Constitution (Scheduled Tribes) Order, 1950, there was no Scheduled Tribe in the District though tribes were there.

The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes List (Modification) Order, 1956, as corrected by Notification No. 13/25/56 SCT-II, dated the 23rd January, 1957, superseded both the Constitution Orders referred to above. This new Order included in the list of Scheduled Castes some more Castes while Mahar or Mehra Caste, which is prominent in the District, was excluded from the list. The said Order extended the Scheduled Tribes area so as to cover Narsimhapur District also for the first time.

The Table below exhibits the total population of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes as enumerated in 1931,[5] 1941, 1951[6] and 1961 in the District with percentage to total population of the District.

Category	Census			
	1931	1941	1951	1961
Scheduled Castes	44,368	47,113	53,507	32,622
Percentage	14.7	14.0	15.0	7.9
Scheduled Tribes	47,447	50,791	N.A.	50,495
Percentage	13.8	15.2	—	12.2

1. A Review on the Administration of the Central Provinces and Berar, 1933-34, p. 15.
2. Report on the State and Progress of Education in the Central Provinces and Berar for the Quinquennium ending 31st March, 1937, p. 101.
3. The Central Provinces and Berar Constitutional Manual, Vol. II, 1937, pp. 42-45.
4. Report on the State and Progress of Education in Madhya Pradesh, 1949-50, p. 54.
5. In 1931 Scheduled Castes were Depressed Classes, while Scheduled Tribes were only Tribes (including Hinduised).
6. In 1941 and 1951 Scheduled Tribes were only Tribes.

The factors mentioned above, the changes made in the use of the terms, and natural aspiration grown in some of the castes for social[1] status however, render these figures incomparable.

Amelioration Measures

Education

The Government of the Central Provinces during the period of early two decades of this Century had taken some measures for the educational welfare or advancement of the Backward Classes and Tribes. These measures included an opening of a few separate schools and award of scholarships to a few children of the Depressed Classes. The transfer of education to the control of the Provincial Legislative Council in the year 1920, resulted in quickening of public interest in the education including that of Backward Classes and Tribes. The Reformed Legislative Council of the Province passed a resolution in March, 1921 requesting the Government to appoint a committee to enquire into the problems including those of education of the Depressed Classes.[2] The Committee submitted its report to the Government in 1922. On the recommendations of this Committee the Government ordered liberal grants-in-aid in November, 1922 to schools opened by private bodies for the education of the Depressed Classes upto two-thirds of their annual expenditure and increase in the value and number of scholarships reserved for Depressed Classes.[3] The Government also agreed to give grants to local bodies for the payment of rewards to Headmasters for boys of the Depressed Classes, who passed the primary Certificate Examination.[4]

The Educational Manual was suitably amended with a view to prohibiting differential treatment of Depressed Class students admitted to schools under public management.[5] In the year 1928-29, an Indian Educational Service Officer was appointed by the Government as the Officer On Special Duty to examine the whole question of the eduction of Depressed Classes.[6] During the period of financial stringency the system of awarding bonuses to Headmasters was discontinued from the year 1931-32 and the number of scholarships was reduced. The number of scholarships was again restored in 1933-34. Since then candidates of Depressed Classes and Tribes were exempted from

1. Census of India 1931, Vol. XII, Central Provinces and Berar, Part I, p. 354 (The Katias and Khangars of Narsimhapur at the Census of 1931 wished themselves to be called Renhta Rajputs and Khangar Kshatriyas because Katias and Khangars in adjoining districts were regarded as untouchables.
2. Memorandum on the Reformed Government of the Central Provinces and Berar, 1930, p. 185.
3. A Review on the Administration of the Central Provinces and Berar, 1921-22, pp. 54-55.
4. Ibid, 1921-22, pp. 54-55.
5. Ibid, 1922-23, p. 56.
6. Ibid, 1928-29, p. 75.

the payment of examination fees, and 25 per cent of the seats in Normal Schools began to be treated as reserved for students of these Classes and Tribes. The Government also changed its policy as regards separate schools for Depressed Classes. It discouraged opening of such schools and encouraged the enrolment of such boys in ordinary schools[1]. But orthodoxy persisted in Hoshangabad District of which Narsimhapur had become a Sub-Divison. There were 5 separate schools in the District of which 2 were run by the Forest Department.[2] It was realised that, aboriginals really needed more attention in the field of education than the Harijans.[3] Due to an increase in number of tribal boys, one more feeder school was started in the District by Forest Department. It was also admitted that in many of the forest villages of the Province educational facilities were lacking.[4] From the year 1938-39 District Committee, appointed by the Harijan Sewak Sangha received Rs. 300 for the education of Harijans and other backward pupils and additional Rs. 300 for books and stationery to be supplied to them.[5]

The Goverrment of the Central Provinces and Berar appointed W. V. Grigson as Aboriginal Tribes Enquiry Officer in May, 1940 to enquire into the conditions of the aboriginal tribes in the Province. While taking a review of the conditions, the Officer remarked, "Any one, who made enquiries such as this would be forced to the view that Government knows little about its aboriginal subjects, has never formulated a consistent policy directed towards their betterment and has done very little with this specific object in view -' .....'. Further he adds, "The record of Government activities done in the name of amelioration of aboriginals is not one to be proud of."[6]

After Independence the Government created special stipends in all categories of educational institutions under the Harijan Amelioration Scheme for Backward Classes. In Government secondary schools and hostels attached to them, 15 to 25 per cent seats began to be kept reserved for students of these Classes. Thus efforts to bring about educational welfare of these Classes were accelerated. When in 1950, the Directive Principles of State Policy, embodied in the Constitution of India, laid down that the State should promote with a special care educational interests of the Backward Classes and Tribes, the State Government introduced schemes for educational advancement of these Classes and Tribes. Various departments of the State Government introduced a scheme for awarding scholarships to students belonging to these Classes and Tribes. The District Panchayat and Welfare Officer, Narsimhapur awarded

1. Ibid. Vol. I 1931-32, p. 95
2. Report on the State and Progress of Education in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1938-39, p. 47.
3. Ibid. 1932-33, p.
4. Ibid, 1936-37, p. 32.
5. Ibid, 1938-39, p. 48.
6. Aboriginal Problem in Central Provinces and Berar, 1944, p. 408.

scholarships to the students of Scheduled Castes studying in high and middle schools in the District. The Table below shows the number of scholarships and total amount spent by the office from the year 1957-58 to 1960-61.

Year	School	No. of scholarships	Amount Spent Rs.
1957-58	High School	10	2,808
	Middle School	5	
1958-59	High School	7	1,788
	Middle School	5	
1959-60	High School	8	2,632
	Middle School	5	
1960-61	High School	9	2,256
	Middle School	4	

During the Second Five Year Plan period the State Government spent Rs. 66,000 in awarding scholarships to 36,147 and 203 students of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes in this District, respectively.

In addition to above, Vanavasi SewaMandal started educational activities in the District from March 1954. The Mandal received grants-in-aid for those activities carried on in both the tahsils of the District. There were two middle schools and 10 primary schools run in the two tahsils by the Mandal. By these schools students belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and others residing in 51 villages were benefited. In the middle schools of the Mandal 60, 9 and 22 boys of Tribes, Harijans and others, respectively, were taking education in 1963. There were only 2 girls in these schools. In 10 primary schools of the District, run by the Mandal there were 255 boys and 99 girls of Tribes, 48 boys and 20 girls of Harijans and 134 boys and 44 girls of other classes in the same year. Thus in all 528 boys and 166 girls were educationally benefited. These schools were taken over by the Tribal Welfare Department from the Mandal on 1st July, 1964, and they were transferred to the Education Department on 1st March, 1965.

In spite of these efforts, at the time of the Census of 1961, it was found that the Scheduled Castes lagged much behind in the field of education. Only 7.3 per cent of their total population in the District were literate. Of these 92.7 per cent were mere literates with no educational level. Again only 13.2 per cent male population of them were literate, while only 1.0 per cent females among them were literate. The picture becomes more gloomy, when we consider the literacy of Scheduled Tribes. Only 7.1 per cent of them were literates. Of the 7.1 per cent literates only 9.1 per cent had primary school level. Literacy of males and females accounted for 12.9 and 1.3 per cent, respectively.

For the Third Five Year Plan period the State Government made a provision of Rs. 1,07,000, for the Welfare Schemes to be undertaken in the District for advancement of all Backward Classes and Tribes. The table below exhibits the position of award of scholarships to these Classes and Tribes of the District during the period under review.

In Rs.

Year	Award of Scholarships to					
	Scheduled Castes		Scheduled Tribes		Other Backward Classes	
	Allotted	Expended	Allotted	Expended	Allotted	Expended
1961-62	27,550	21,635	25,700	19,508	3,080	2,672
1962-63	31,450	30,640	42,455	42,298	2,700 198 Vimukta *Jatis*	2,155 198 Vimukta *Jatis*
1963-64	40,700	27,580	28,800	11,822	8,240 500 (V.J.)	2,048 118 (V.J.)
1964-65	58,000	41,377	34,000	23,585	400 (V.J.)	588 (V.J.)
1965-66 (December end 1965)	1,24,575	29,541	65,650	17,468	1,380 (V.J.)	157 (V.J.)

In the year 1964-65, 1,953 boys and 494 girls from the Tribes were studying in the primary schools of the District while in middle schools their numbers were 337 boys and 59 girls. For them 2 hostels accommodating 55 boarders were also working in the District. In the same year Rs. 9,500 were spent on distribution of stationery, slates, etc., among the Tribal students.

Besides these State scholarships, Government of India post-matric scholarships are given to the students of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes. This scheme of awarding scholarships was till 1959-60 administered by the Directorate of Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradesh, and the Government of India, Ministry of Education, New Delhi. During 1960-61 and 1963-64 Commissioner, Jabalpur Division, Jabalpur was empowered to allot these scholarships to the students of this District. In the year 1960-61 two scholarships of the value of Rs. 703, and 3 scholarships of the value of Rs. 3,363 were awarded to the students of Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes, respectively, while in the year 1962-63, Rs. 12,087 were spent on 30 such scholarships. One scholarship of the value of Rs. 316, 10 scholarships of the value of Rs. 3,026 and 19 scholarships of the value of Rs. 8,745 were then awarded to the students of Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes, respectively, of the District. In the year 1964-65, Rs. 9,097 and Rs. 427 were given as post-matric scholarships to

students of Scheduled Castes and Vimukta Jatis, respectively, while in the case of scholarships given to students of Other Backward Classes the amount was Rs. 7,470. Post-matric scholarships 578 in number and worth Rs. 13,520, Rs. 2,162 and Rs. 14,362 were sanctioned for awarding to 40,7 and 31 students of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes, respectively. Of these only Rs. 7,118, Rs: 169 and Rs. 7,760 were awarded to scholars till 31st December, 1965. These are now awarded by the Collector.

Economic Advancement

Economically, the Backward Classes and Tribes were dependent on agriculture in general. The penultimate settlement of Narsimhapur District had taken place in 1894-95. Since then, it was found in 1940 and 1941, that the aboriginals of the District had lost much of their land.[1] Their average holding had fallen. In the Chichli circle of Gadarwara Tahsil the continuous decline was noticed since Thirty Years' Settlement of the 'sixties. This decline in the holdings of aboriginals was rather astonishing when we take into consideration the great expansion of cultivation, which took place between the settlements of the 'sixties and of 'nineties.[2] It was found that rich wheat-growing land was taken by non-aboriginal *malguzar* from his aboriginal tenants. Thus between 1891 and 1940 aboriginals had lost in the Kerpani Circle of Narsimhapur Tahsil 28.5 per cent and in the Dobhi Circle of Gadarwara Tahsil 26 per cent. In fact much of the southern border of Gadarwara and Narsimhapur tahsils belonged to the ancient aboriginal royal families, but even in these tracts the dispossession of aboriginals was continuous.[3] This was the case in respect of tenancy and *ryotwari* land of the District.

As regards loss of proprietary lands, the position of the aborginal was not found safe.[4] They were gradually being displaced by traders and agriculturists from the open country. With a view to placing restriction on the transfer of agricultural land, held in proprietary right and to check its alienation from impoverished aboriginals, the Government of the Cental Provinces and Berar applied the Land Alienation Act of 1916, to certain aboriginal classes in certain tracts of the Province. The Act was applied to the notified *jagirs* of Narsimhapur and Gadarwara[5] tahsils, while the classes notified were only Gonds and Raj-Gonds.

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1. Ibid, p. 27.
2. Ibid, p. 27.
3. Ibid, p. 28.
4. Ibid, p. 463 (In Gadarwara Tahsil and Kerpani Circle of Narsimhapur at the time of Penultimate Settlement there were 2,411 aboriginal tenants holding 22,600 acres of land, while in 1939-40, 18,900 acres were held by 2,421 aboriginal tenants. In Narsimhapur Tahsil, except Kerpani Circle, the aboriginal tenants during the same period increased by 295, while land held in acres by them increased by 3,200 acres (p. 494).
5. Ibid, p. 110.

"Closely allied to the question of loss of land and working with it in a vicious circle is the question of aboriginal debt". It is well known that the holdings of aboriginals were not increasing, whereas mouths to be fed were increasing in numbers. Besides, general scale of their social expenditure on weddings and other ceremonies also increased. In such a position the aboriginal was forced to take debts from money-lenders at excessively high interest. It was observed in 1944, that protective measures from indebtedness were necessary and it was not safe to leave aboriginals at the mercy of money-lenders. There was "a spate of debt legislation"[1] during the years 1933 to 1941. There was Debt Conciliation Act, 1933 (amended by one Act in 1934 and two each in 1935, 1936 and 1937). Again in 1934 The Central Provinces Usurious Loans (Amendment) Act and the Central Provinces Money-lenders Act were enacted. The latter Act was amended in 1936, 1937 and in 1940. In 1937 the Central Provinces Protection of Debtors' Act and in 1939 the Central Provinces and Berar Relief of Indebtedness Act (amended thrice till 1944) were enforced. These Acts replaced Debt Conciliation Boards by Debt Relief Courts.

As regards the working of the Board in the District it was found that in Gadarwara and Narsimhapur tahsils there were only 89 aboriginals, who moved the Board for conciliation of a debt of Rs. 1,00,099. "Only eight cases were dismissed, but no figures of the settlements in the remaining 81 cases" were available. It was observed that "The Chairman commented on the very few applications that came from the aboriginals but noticed from these the aboriginal debtors were a more ready prey than others to avaricious money-lenders owing to their greater honesty, simplicity and ignorance. He also noticed many cases of loans to aboriginals on the security of their own labour or that of their sons."[2] It was found that the publicity given to the establishment of the Board and subsequently to the establishment of Debt Relief Courts was ineffective.

In case of the Scheduled Castes employed in agriculture it may be said that no such detailed enquiry was then held, but it may be assumed that their condition was not very different from that of the Scheduled Tribes.

Special provisions to ensure economic development were made by the Government only after the Country achieved freedom. Castes were "Scheduled" in 1937 but the Tribes in the District were "Scheduled" only in 1956. The Bhoodan lands received in the District are being distributed among the landless people of these Castes and Tribes. Besides, an amount of Rs. 12,775 was distributed as loans to Basors and Chamars of the District in the years 1961 to 1964 (August) by the District Industries Office, Narsimhapur from the State Government fund.

1. Ibid, pp. 193-94.
2. Ibid, pp. 198-99.

During the Third Plan period a Cane and Basket Training Centre was started in Babai-Chichli and Kareli Community Development Blocks. About 20 trainees were benefited till September, 1964. It is striking that the Basors of Babai-Chichli Block, living uphills, offered a cold reception to this training scheme probably due to prejudices about the work in cane and basket.

After protection from loss of land and the money-lender, the main need of the aboriginals and Scheduled Castes has been an alternative source of cheap credit. In the year 1939-40 there were no cooperative societies purely of the aboriginal members in the District. In 21 societies of the District, then working, there were only 26 members of aboriginal Tribes.

Recently, the Co-operative Department and Vanavasi Sewa Mandal have started seven co-operative societies to help the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Communities of the District. Of these five were working in 1964-65. Total membership of these, was 292, and their paid-up capital and reserves and other funds amounted to Rs. 1,024 and Rs. 208, respectively. Their borrowings and other liabilities stood at Rs. 1,500 and Rs. 5,639, respectively. Their total assets stood at Rs. 9,476. These societies are of the labourers working in the forests. In addition to this, Khadi and Village Industries Commission of India and its State branch are giving financial assistance to the 14 oil-*ghani* co-operative societies, three leather workers' co-operative societies and one brick manufacturing co-operative society. The societies have a membership of 229, while their collected share capital is Rs. 4,331. The assistance in the form of loans and grants, they received from 1960-61 to 1964-65, amounts to Rs. 2,32,062.

Mahra Hitaishi Sabha, Kareli has started Sutra Kala Mandir at Kareli in 1961. It introduced *charkha* training for the economic welfare of the needy people of Mahra caste. In the Mandir there were six *charkhas* for training in the year 1963.

At the Census[1] of 1961, it was found that of the total population of Scheduled Castes in the District, 56.4 per cent were economically active (59.8 per cent males and 52.7 per cent females) as against 46.3 per cent (55.9 per cent males and 32.2 per cent females) of the general population of the District. Of their total working force, 61.0 per cent was dependent on agriculture, cultivators and agricultural labourers constituting 18.1 per cent and 42.9 per cent, respectively. The higher proportion of agricultural labourers indicated to some extent the land hunger. Second place in their economy was occupied by household industry, which engaged 22.1 per cent of their working force.

In the case of Scheduled Tribes, Census figures reflect that their economy too was predominantly dependent on agriculture which absorbed 82.6 per cent

1. Narsimhapur District Census Hand-Book, 1961, pp. Lii-Liii.

of their total working force, which stood at above 62.3 per cent. Holder-cultivators and agricultural labourers constituted, respectively, 46.4 per cent and 37.2 per cent of their total working force. The Census Report observed that, when the state of their economy *vis-a-vis* agriculture was considered, the overall picture of their cultivating households showed that 73.1 per cent of the rural cultivating households of the Scheduled Tribes held less than 12.5 acres of land each. It is also interesting to note that, most of them cultivated infertile lands in hilly tracts. This leads us to the conclusion that those 12.5 acres cannot be said to be economically paying. Other services absorbing 11.4 per cent of their total working force occupied second place in their economy.

Moreover, with a view to giving economic aid to the agriculturists of the Scheduled Castes, the State Government have started a scheme of granting agricultural subsidies at the rate of Rs. 500 to such a needy family. Thus, in the years 1963-64 and 1964-65 Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 500 were distributed as agricultural subsidy as against Rs. 5,500 and Rs. 3,000 in the years 1961-62 and 1962-63, respectively. In addition to this, every year Rs. 200 are sanctioned as legal aid to be given to Scheduled Caste families if they need it. Legal aid of the same amount is also provided for Scheduled Tribe families.

Social Advancement

From times immemorial the so-called untouchables of this District too were suffering from various social and political disabilities, many of which were traditionally prescribed and socially imposed by the so-called high-caste people of the District. They were even denied civil rights of using public places, wells, *serais*, *dharmashalas*, schools, etc. Thus, in every sense their condition was depressed. The Tribes were probably not supposed to carry with them any such social stigma but that was perhaps due to their remote and isolated habitations in hills and forests.

Till 1947, there was no legislation affecting these Depressed Classes, and Tribes. We have earlier seen that during the period of first two decades of this Century the Government respected the orthodox feelings and opened separate schools for the children of these Classes. It was only after 1920, when political activity had done more "to break down caste and communal prejudices than any amount of missionary effort," that the Government gathered courage and began to taken some measures for removing social disability of children of the Depressed Classes studying in public schools. It amended the Educational Manual with a view to prohibiting differential treatment to boys and girls of these Classes.

In subsequent period, growth in the means of communication brought those people into close contact with others and this to some extent resulted in

closing the wide gulf between these Classes and high castes. With the growth of education there was seen political and social awakening in these Classes and change in thoughts of educated generation as regards caste restrictions. With newspapers and periodicals new liberal and democratic ideas rapidly travelled from place to place. The political activities of the third and fourth decades of this Century made these Classes conscious of their civil rights and social and political propaganda against the evil of untouchability helped considerably in changing the heart of people in general. It has been recorded, as made clear earlier that in this District, orthodoxy persisted for a long period. The Government encouraged admission of children of these Classes in Government institutions and by reserving seats for them it tried to narrow the existing social gulf.

In the fourth decade of this Century, a branch of the All India Harijan Sewak Sangh was established in the District This voluntary organisation on the one hand encouraged education among these Classes, while on the other hand by its propaganda, it educated public opinion in favour of removal of untouchability. The Government gave grant to the District Harijan Sewak Sangh for its educational activities under the Harijan Amelioration Scheme.

In 1947, when the Country achieved freedom, the Government of the Central Provinces and Berar enacted and brought into force the Central Provinces and Berar Temple Entry Authorisation Act, 1947 (XII of 1947), It aimed at bringing the members of Scheduled Castes on a par with the members of other Hindu communities in the matter of temple entry and worship of the deity in temple. In the same year the Government of the Province passed the Central Provinces and Berar Scheduled Castes (Removal of Civil Disabilities) Act 1947 (XXIV of 1947). The Act prohibited discrimination against members of Scheduled Castes in all public places like schools, wells, hotels, shops, etc. These Acts greatly helped in giving civil rights and liberties to the so-called untouchables.

When in 1950, the Republic Constitution of India was framed, the Directive Principles of State policy were embodied in it. These Principles lay down that the "State shall promote............the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people and in particular of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation". Accordingly, the State Government introduced welfare activities in all the spheres of life of these Castes and Tribes. One more legislative step, with a view to giving death-blow to the evil of untouchability, was taken in 1955, when the Untouchability (Offences) Act was made applicable. The Act declared observance of untouchability at public places an offence. Under this Act in the years 1956 and 1959, in all 6 offences (3 in each) were registered in the District and three persons were convicted in 1959, only. In 1957, one accused was convicted. In the years 1958, 1962 and 1964, 1, 2, and 1 offences were registered, respectively.

Now in general, restrictions, imposed upon the untouchables earlier. are not observed at public places by the people. They are not treated as socially disabled persons.

Other Welfare Measures

Other measures taken for the welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes include construction of wells, houses, a community centre, a *Sanskar Kendra* and *Balwadi*. Under the centrally sponsored scheme of welfare of Scheduled Castes, work of construction of 8 wells for the use of Scheduled Caste people was started in the District at different places in 1960-61. Of these, 4 were completed at the cost of Rs. 8,000. For remaining 4, additional allotment was received and the work is under completion. Thus Rs. 17,500 have been allotted for these 8 wells. During subsequent years, one more well was constructed and two were under construction. Besides, under the same scheme, 10 houses at the cost of Rs. 7,500 have been constructed at Gotegaon and Narsimhapur in 1960-61. The State Government constructed in 1962-63 a Community Centre Hall at village Chichli at the cost of Rs. 5,000 for the use of Scheduled Castes and Tribes. The same year witnessed the creation of *Sanskar Kendra* which is under construction. A Harijan *Balwadi* has been organised at Narsimhapur in the year 1963-64.

Local bodies like Janapad Sabhas and Municipal Councils in the District have taken steps to improve the conditions of their Harijan employees. In the year 1961-62, the Municipal Council, Narsimhapur constructed a sweepers' colony, at the cost of Rs. 3,239 and it is allotted to 5 sweeper families rent-free. Municipal Council Chhota-Chhindwara (Gotegaon) constructed similar colony accommodating 6 families in 1960-61, at the cost of Rs. 9,765. It is also allotted rent-free to municipal sweepers. Both the councils have purchased hand-carts or wheeled-barrows for carrying away night-soil. The Municipality at Chhota Chhindwara provided a separate well and one tube-well (hand-pipe) in the vicinity of sweepers' colony. It has also introduced Provident Fund Scheme for its employees. All municipal councils provide uniforms, grain advances, maternity and other leave to their employees. The Janapad Sabhas give all those facilities to the employees of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Communities as given by the Government of the State. The Mahra Hitaishi Sabha, Kareli has organised two Ramayan Mandals for the moral and spiritual advancement of the people of Mahra caste.

CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS

Organisation for the Control of Public Trusts and Charitable Endowments

All religions and faiths in India have praised gifts and endowments made for religious or charitable purposes. There is evidence to show that such acts of piety have been done by the noble-minded persons of the District from ancient time. In olden days, these persons dedicated their property or share

or part of it without registration. Today the laws refuse to recognise such unregistered dedications.

The first Central Act, Religious Endowment Act, 1863 (XX of 1863), was passed to administer control over Public Trusts and Charitable Endowments. The Indian Trusts Act, 1882 (II of 1882), excluded such Trusts and Endowments from its operation. The Charitable Endowment Act 1890, (VI of 1890), provided for the vesting and administration of property held in Trust for charitable purposes. Under sub-section (1) of Section 3 of this Act., for the State of Madhya Pradesh, the Secretary to the Government of Madhya Pradesh, Finance Department, has been appointed the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments from the 1st of June, 1955. The Charitable and Religious Trusts Act, 1920 (XIV of 1920), was amended in 1921, 1937, 1950 and in 1951. It provided for more effective control over the administration of the Trusts made for charitable and religious purposes.

For the first time the Central Provinces and Berar Religious and Charitable Trusts Act was passed in 1937. It was amended in 1948, and finally replaced in 1951 by the Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act, 1951. This Act, in Section 2 sub-section (8), excludes those Musalman Wakfs, which are dedicated only for themselves, from its operation. The Musalman Wakf Validating Act, 1913 (VI of 1913), amended by Act XXII of 1923 and Act XXXII of 1930, validated such Wakfs. Only those Wakfs come under the category of Public Trusts, which are strictly for the benefit of public as defined by the Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act, 1951. The Wakfs Act, 1954 (XXIX of 1954), which provided for better administration and supervision of Wakfs as amended by the Wakf Amendment Act, 1959, came into force in the District from 9th January, 1960. The Public Wakfs Extension of Limitation Act, 1959 (XXIX of 1959), repealed the Ordinance 2 of 1959. The Wakfs of the District are under the Administrative control of Wakf Board, Bhopal.

At District level, the main controlling authority of the Public Trusts and most of the Charitable Endowments established in the District is the Collector, who is the Registrar for this purpose. Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act of 1951 governs the working of all Public Trusts, which are required to get themselves registered with the Registrar. The Registrar looks after the proper management and functioning of these institutions. As required by the Act of 1951, all the Public Trusts of the District have opened their individual account in the Central Co-operative Bank of the District and deposited all their funds in the bank. The Manager or the Secretary, as the case may be, of the Trust is authorised to spend the amount normally required for the smooth running of the day-to-day essential activities of the Trusts. All the Public Trusts Committees prepare their annual budgets and send them for the approval of the Registrar. The accounts of these institutions are subject to an audit and inspection by the Local Audit Fund Department, but

generally the local auditors appointed by the Registrar check and certify the correctness of these accounts.

The total number of Public Trusts in the District was 187 by the end of January, 1966. Of these, 110 were in Gadarwara Tahsil, while the remaining 77 were in Narsimhapur Tahsil. A close study of the objects of these trusts makes it clear that as many as 170 were devoted to the purely religious objects. Of the remaining 17 Trusts, 11 were devoted either to medical, educational or social purposes. It is also interesting to note that from the point of view of annual income majority of these Public Trusts were minor, their financial resources being very limited and poor. Out of the 187 Public Trusts only 55 had their annual income Rs. 1,000 or above, and only 9 were engaged in some sort of social service. A brief account of some of the important Public Trusts is given below.

1. Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Gadarwara

This *Pustakalaya* was established in 1914 by the philanthropists of Gadarwara with the object of spreading education and promoting the cause of Hindi. The annual income of the Trust is about Rs. 1,000. The Trust was registered under the Public Trusts Act of 1951 in 1955, when its movable property was Rs. 8,603, while it possessed an immovable property worth Rs. 15,000. It conducts a library, a reading-room and a, *vyayamshala*. It also provides special facilities to the persons of all Backward Classes and Tribes by rendering them reading facilities.

2. Shri Sadawarta Dharmada Committee, Gadarwara

Under the Public Trusts Act of 1951 this Trust was registered in the year 1955. The Trust owned a movable property of Rs. 35,530, while its immovable property was of the value of Rs. 46,810. The annual income of the Trust was above Rs. 1,000. The objects of the Trust include service to the cows and free distribution of food among the poor.

3. Shri Deva Narmadaji Vaidik Brahmacharyashrama, Sokalpur, Tahsil Gadarwara

This Trust aims at spreading education of Sanskrit language and distributing food, free of charge, among the pilgrims, who reach the place on their way to complete circumambience of the river Narmada. The Trust had in 1955 an immovable property of the value of Rs. 16,500, while its annual income was more than Rs. 3,000. The registration of the Trust was effected in 1955.

4. Grain Merchants' Association, Kareli

The Trust was registered in the year 1955. It helps the grain merchants and tries to procure for them the facilities in connection with their trade. Its

movable property in 1955 was Rs. 4,367, whils its immouable property was of the value of Rs. 24,000.

5. **Shri Sanatani Mandir Samiti, Kareli**

This Trust registered in 1955 aims at running a *Goshala* in addition to the worship in the temple. It had then a movable property of Rs. 8,503, while the value of its immovable property was Rs. 74,900. An annual income of the Trust was about Rs. 1,000.

6. **Shri Narmada Sanskrit Pathashala, Chawarpatha**

This Trust of village Chawarpatha aims at spreading knowledge of the Sanskrit language. Its annual income from all sources was Rs. 1,200 in 1955, when the Trust was registered. It had no movable property, while the value of its immovable property was Rs. 3,000.

7. **Shri Deva Narmada Mandir, Village Bhatera, Tahsil Gadarwara**

With the aim of educating boys and conducting the worship of God, the Trust was established. It was registered in 1955, when its annual income was Rs. 5,300. The Trust had then a movable property of above Rs. 30,000, while its immovable property was of the value of about Rs. 36,000.

There is also one Rice Fund Committee at Narsimhapur, registered in 1946. In the 'thirtees of this Century there was scarcity of grain in the District. The then Deputy Commissioner managed to import rice and sell it in the District. These transactions, operated through the merchants, yielded a profit of Rs. 10,000. This amount was deposited in the name of the Committee presided over by the Sub-Divisional Officer, Narsimhapur. The Committee is formed to award scholarships to poor and deserving students and to help a few other voluntary social service organisations like Peace Memorial Library, Janata Library, etc., of Narsimhapur through the amount of interest annually recovered on the amount of Rs. 10,000.

The Dharmada Davakhana Trust, which has an annual income of less than Rs. 1,000, provides free medicines to the poor at Kareli. Shri Koduram S/o Rajaram Nikhara Trust, Kareli having an annual income of less than Rs. 1,000 aims at educating boys and girls of Gahoi caste, etc. Both these were registered in 1955.

Charitable Endowments

There are very few Charitable Endowments in the District. A brief account of some of them is given below.

1. **Vijay Bahadur Singh Prize Medal Fund**

Vijay Bahadur Singh of village Karap in Gadarwara tahsil in the year 1907, deposited a sum of Rs. 500, which was then utilised in procuring securi-

ties of the same value by the then Deputy Commissioner of the District. The object of the donor was to annually award a silver medal worth Rs. 17.44, out of the amount of interest on the securities, to a school boy who secures first position in the sports organised during the time of an annual fair at Barman. Collector is the administrator of the fund and the amount is now credited in the Post office Savings Bank account. In the year 1965, the net balance of the fund in the Bank was Rs. 123.25.

2. Diwan Durgasingh Rajgond Scholarship Fund

In the year 1920, Diwan Durgasingh had donated a sum of Rs. 1,700 to create this fund. In the year 1965 the net balance of the fund in Post office Saving Bank account was Rs. 575.59. The object of the fund has been to award scholarships every year to five poor boys of Brahman caste, (excepting those of Kanyakubja group) residing in Narsimhapur tahsil. The boys passing the primary school examination and joining the Kareli Basti Vernacular Middle School used to get these scholarships for a period of three years. No Scholarships have been awarded from this fund since the year 1949. The Collector is the administrator of this fund.

3 Shri Chhattarsingh Chauhan Medal Fund

Y. S. Chauhan of Narsimhapur invested in this trust fund an amount of Rs. 500 in the year 1950. This educational Trust of the District is managed by the Divisional Superintendent of Education, Narmada Divison, Hoshangabad. Net annual income accruing from the said amount is annually applied in awarding a silver medal to a student, who stands first in the H. S. Certificate Examination from the Government Multipurpose Higher Secondary School, Narsimhapur.

Government Grant to Religious Institutions

Under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948, thirteen annual money-grants of the value of Rs. 4,068 have been sanctioned from the Charitable (Dharmartha) head, in Narsimhapur District. These money-grants are given to temples and a *dargah*, situated at various places in the District, for their maintenance, upkeep, etc.

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Representation in Union Legislature

The Indian Councils Act, 1909 came into operation for the first time from the 15th November, 1909 in the Central Provinces, of which the District of Narsimhapur formed a constituent part. This can be said, in a limited sense, to be a beginning of representation of the District in the then Central Legislature.

The Governor-General in Legislative Council called upon the District Councils and the Municipal Committees of the Province to elect an Additional Member to the Legislative Council of the Governor-General. The landholders of the Province too were called upon to elect another Additional Member to represent them in the same Council. Thus the Province formed two non-territorial constituencies and they elected two Additional Members to sit in the Council of the Governor-General.

The District Council of Narsimhapur and the Municipality of the town of Narsimhapur selected one delegate each, while the landholders of the District selected 3 delegates to be enrolled on their province-wide electoral colleges, to vote for the election of the members of the Central Legislature from their respective constituencies.

A modification in the above procedure of election of an Additional Member to the Legislative Council of the Governor-General of India by selected delegates of District Councils and Municipalities was subsequently effected. This was achieved in pursuance of Regulations for nominations and elections of Additional Members to the said Council, first published on 14th November, 1912, and amended subsequently. By these Regulations the right to elect an Additional Member conferred on the District Councils and Municipalities was transferred to the non-official members of the Legislative Council of the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces, first formed in 1914-15. These non-official members since then began to elect an Additional Member to the Legislative Council of the Governor-General of India.

Another epoch was reached in the annals of India in 1920, when under the provisions of the Government of India Act, 1919 two Legislatures were created at the Centre For the election of a member to the Council of State, the Central Provinces excluding certain zamindari and jagirdari estates and some other backward tracts formed one constituency, while the Province was divided into four constituencies to elect 5 members to represent the Province in the Indian Legislative Assembly. The District of Narsimhapur formed a part of the following three constituencies—(1) Double-member Central Provinces Hindi Division (non-Muhammadan), (2) Central Provinces (Muhammadan), (3) Central Provinces (Landholders). Berar separately formed a constituency to return one member to each of these Legislatures at the Centre. When the Government of India Act 1935 came into force, this position remained much the same because the Federal part of the scheme never came into executive existence.

The inauguration of the Republic Constitution of India in 1950 necessitated the delimitation of constituencies in the country for the election of members to the Lok Sabha. At the time of all the four General Elections (1951-52, 1957, 1962 and 1967), Narsimhapur District formed a part of Hoshangabad Lok Sabha constituency for electing a representative member to the Lok Sabha.

Representation in State Legislature

Upto the year 1914, when the first Central Provinces Legislative Council of the Chief Commissioner was established, the representative Government in the Central Provinces and Berar remained practically confined to Local Bodies. Until the 10th November, 1913, the Legislative Authority in the Central Provinces for the purpose of making Laws and Regulations was the Council of the Governor-General of India, while Legislation for Berar was effected by notification issued by the Governor-General in Council under the powers conferred on him by the Indian (Foreign Jurisdiction) Order in Council in 1902.

The territories till then administered by the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces were by a Proclamation declared to be a Province with effect from the 10th November, 1913 and the provisions of the Indian Councils Acts (1861 to 1909) were made applicable thereto. The Central Provinces Legislative Council was established in 1914. Under the Indian Councils Act 1909 the Governor-General in Council issued Regulations for the nomination and election of members of the Central Provinces Legislative Council on the 15th November, 1913.

Under these rules, the Legislative Council was composed of ten elected and fifteen nominated members.

The Municipal Councillors of Narsimhapur, Gadarwara and Chhota Chhindwara exercised their right of electing one member alongwith other Municipal Councillors of the Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Divisions. Similarly District Councillors and Landholders of the District elected one member each from their respective constituencies, which included other District Councillors and Landholders of the Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Divisions. Thus the District was, in a very limited sense, represented by 3 members in the first Legislative Council of the Central Provinces, the first meeting of which was held on the 17th August, 1914. The term of this Legislative Council expired in July, 1917, when a new Council came into existence. It functioned till August, 1920. The position of representation remained much the same.

The Government of India Act 1919 provided for constituting the Central Provinces Governor's Province. The provisions of the Act and the Central Provinces Legislative Council Rules came into force from the 17th December, 1920. The Reformed Council, which replaced the old one, first met in January, 1921. The new Council was constituted with 36 elected and 34 nominated members.

Of these constituencies Nerbudda Division non-Muhammadan urban constituency included Narsimhapur Municipality. The District of Narsimhapur formed a non-Muhammadan (Rural) constituency of the same name for electing a member. In respect of Muhammadan Rural Constituency Narsimhapur District (Rural) was included in the constituency by name Nerbudda Division (Rural). Of the 4 special constituencies, the Landholders' constituency of the Jubbulpore & Nerbudda Divisions included landholders of Narsimhapur District for electing a member, while the District formed part of other two non-territorial constituencies of mining, and Commerce and Industry for electing one member from each of them. Thus the District formed part of 6 constituencies participating in the election of 6 members out of 36 elected members of the Central Provinces Legislative Council of the Governor. The first reformed Council lasted from January, 1921 to October, 1923.

The second Council worked from January, 1924 to September, 1926. The representation of the District in the Council remained unchanged in respect of old constituencies. In addition to them the District formed a part of a newly constituted non-territorial constituency of Nagpur University in 1923. The constituency returned an elected member for the first time in the second Council. This caused an increase in the number of elected members and the total number of members of the Legislative Council.

In the third Council which was constituted in January, 1927 and dissolved in August, 1930, Mandla District returned an elected member for the first time as the District was enfranchised and given benefit of the reforms in 1926. The

strength of elected members in the Council was then 55 while the total strength of the Councillors was 73. It is worth mentioning that for the first time women were enfranchised from 3rd September, 1927. The representation of the District remained as it was till 1928.

The fourth Legislative Council commenced from December, 1930 and continued enjoying extensions till March, 1937. During this period the District had lost its individuality as it was merged in the Hoshangabad District. However, the representation of the region remained much the same.

When the Government of India Act 1935 came into force the Province was declared to be entitled to constitute its Legislative Assembly. Accordingly delimitation of constituencies was achieved and under the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly Electoral Rules of 1936 elections were held in 1937. All the 112 seats of the Assembly were elective. The Province was divided into various classes of constituencies and the seats were allotted to them. Out of the 112 seats, 20 were reserved for scheduled castes. The total number of electors in the Province was 1,741, 364.

The District of Narsimhapur, which was then one of the sub-divisions of Hoshangabad District was represented in the first Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly through the following constituencies. In respect of General Urban constituencies, the region formed a part of one-member Hoshangabad-Nimar-Chhindwara constituency. Narsimhapur-Gadarwara (now tahsils of the District) formed one of the separate General Rural constituencies having two seats. One of these seats was reserved for the Scheduled Castes. Gadarwara and Narsimhapur tahsils were included in the one-member Sagar-Narsimhapur Muhammadan Rural constituency. The region also formed part of the following single-member constituencies : Backward Tribes, Central Provinces Commerce, Central Provinces Landholders, University, European and Anglo-Indian. In the Second Elections (1946) of the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly the representation of the region remained undisturbed.

When the Republic Constitution of India was made applicable to the country in 1950, the first General Elections to the newly formed Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly were held in 1951-52. For the purpose of these elections the region now forming the Narsimhapur District was divided into the four single-member constituencies, *viz.*, Gotegaon, Narsimhapur, Chichli, and Gadarwara. These four constituencies elected four members to the Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly to represent the District. Details of these constituencies are tabulated below.

Name of the Constituency	Total No. of Electors	Total No. of Votes	Total No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of Col. 4 to 3
1	2	3	4	5
1. Gotegaon	41,458	41,458	18,042	43
2. Narsimhapur	43,596	43,596	18,928	40
3. Chichli	44,915	44,915	19,698	42
4. Gadarwara	49,648	49,648	22,727	46

Subsequently by an order of 1956 delimitation of constituencies was made and second General Elections were held in 1957. It may not be out of place here to mention that prior to this, as a result of bifurcation of Hoshangabad District, Narsimhapur District regained its separate entity from 1st November, 1956. For the second General Elections of 1957 the District was covered only by three constituencies for electing 4 of its representatives in the Legislative Assembly of the reorganised Madhya Pradesh, the total number of members of which was 288 as against 232 in old Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly. Gotegaon and Narsimhapur were single-member constituencies, while Gadarwara was a double-member constituency. Of this last constituency, one seat was reserved for a Scheduled Caste candidate. The details of these elections are tabulated below.

Name of the Constituency	No. of Electors	No. of Votes	No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of Col. 4 to 3
1	2	3	4	5
Gotegaon	41,415	41,415	23,521	56.79
Narsimhapur	44,393	44,393	25,132	56.62
Gadarwara	91,465	1,82,930	73,082	38.31

During these elections the above three constituencies covered the areas of the District as shown against their names

Name of the Constituency	Extent of the Constituency
Gotegaon	Gotegaon and Shrinagar R.I.C.s and Dangidhana R.I.C. (excluding Patwari circles 43 to 46) in Narsimhapur Tahsil.
Narsimhapur	Narsimhapur and Barman R.I.C.s and Patwari circles 43 to 46 of Dangidhana R.I.C.
Gadarwara	Gadarwara Tahsil.

In pursuance of the two-member Constituencies (Abolition) Act 1961, the double-member Gadarwara constituency was split up into two single-member constituencies, *viz.*, Sainkheda (Reserved for Scheduled Castes) and Gadarwara. Thus during the third General Elections of 1961 four constituencies covered the District and 4 members were elected to represent the District in the Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly. The extent of Gotegaon and Narsimhapur constituencies remained unchanged, while the old double-member Gadarwara constituency witnessed great change in its extent due to its bifurcation into two. The change is exhibited below.

Name of the Constituency	Extent of the Constituency
	1957
Gadarwara	Gadarwara Tahsil
	1962
1. Gadarwara	Gadarwara Tahsil (excluding Sainkheda) and Chichli R.I.C.s and Patwari Circles 89 and 101 to 110 of Sihora R.I.C.
2. Sainkheda	Sainkheda and Chichli R.I.C.s and Patwari circles 89 and 101 to 110 of Sihora R.I.C.

Details of the elections in these constituencies in 1962 are given below.

Name of the Constituency	No. of Electors	No. of Votes	No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of Col. 4 to 3
1	2	3	4	5
Gadarwara	50,155	50,155	25,524	51
Sainkheda	46,115	46,115	12,670	27
Gotegaon	47,427	47,427	27,378	58
Narsimhapur	49,649	49,649	25,596	52

In the General Elections of 1967 four members were elected from the four Vidhan Sabha constituencies of the District to the Madhya Pradesh Vidhan Sabha. Details of these constituencies are given below.

Name of the Constituency	No. of Votes	No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of Col. 3 to 2
1	2	3	4
Gadarwara	55,728	26,218	47 05
Bohani	55,367	30,748	55.53
Narsimhapur	57,920	32,364	55.88
Gotegaon	55,512	32,883	59.23

POLITICAL PARTIES AND ORGANISATIONS

Congress

The first political party organised in the District was the Indian National Congress, a branch of which was established here during the concluding years of the first decade of this Century.

In spite of the repressive measures the Congress became strong, popular and most influential in the District in subsequent period. The Party led the people of the District to participate in the various Satyagraha and Civil Disobedience Movements during the period from 1920 to 1942. In the elections of 1937 and 1946 the Congress won in all the constituencies, except in the Sagar-Narsimhapur-Muhammadan Rural constituency.

In the General Elections of 1951-52 the Party put up a candidate for the Hoshangabad Parliamentary Constituency to which the District was attached and came out victorious. It also contested all the four seats of the present Narsimhapur District for the Vidhan Sabha (Legislative Assembly) and won three seats. In all, it polled 44.49 per cent of the valid votes cast in the District. In Gadarwara, Chichli, Narsimhapur and Gotegaon Legislative Assembly constituencies the candidates of the Party gained 4,64,240 or 43 per-cent of total valid votes. The Congress maintained its position in tact in 1957, so far as the election to the Lok Sabha was concerned. In the elections for the Vidhan Sabha, all the four candidates of the party came out victorious. Thus the Congress also captured the one seat it had lost in the preceding General Election of 1951-52. In all it polled 53.82 per cent of the valid votes cast in the District. In Gotegaon and Narsimhapur constituencies the Party candidates, secured 56.79 and 56.62 per cent of valid votes respectively polled, while in the double-member Gadarwara constituency the Party obtained 38.31 per cent of valid votes polled.

In the General Elections of 1962 the Party lost the Lok Sabha seat as well as the four seats of Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly. It could secure only 32.73 per cent of the total valid votes polled in the elections to the latter body. Thus in the Gadarwara, Sainkheda, Gotegaon and Narsimhapur constituencies the Congress candidates could secure only 32.08, 24.63, 29.36 and 40.91 per cent of votes, respectively. In the General Elections of 1967 the Congress regained the Lok Sabha seat which it had lost in 1962. As regards Vidhan Sabha seats, all the four seats were won by the candidates of the Congress Party. In Gadarwara and Bohani constituencies the candidates of the Party secured 13,899 and 12,507 valid votes out of 26,218 and 30,748 total valid votes polled in those contituencies, respectively. Congress candidates in Narsimhapur and Gotegaon constituencies obtained 13,393 and 22,104 votes out of 32,364 and 32,883 vaild votes polled in these two constituencies, respectively.

The Congress has a pyramidal structure with Mandal Congress Committee at the base and the All India Congress Committee at the top, with the town, tahsil, district and the provincial Committee in between.

Hindu Mahasabha

Prior to the year 1937-38 the organisation was merely a social and religious association. It gained some political character after 1937-38. A branch of this Party was established at Tendukheda in the District in 1939, with a membership of 20. The Party never exerted any influence over the masses of the District and faded away.

Muslim League

The Party had its branches at 5 towns of the District all established during the years 1937 and 1938. The branch at Kandeli had a membership of 113 while branches at Gotegaon, Kareli and Gadarwara had 300,150 and 88 members, respectively. The branch at Narsimhapur was established in 1938. The candidate of the Party won the elections of 1937 and 1946 in Sagar-Narsimhapur-Muhammadan Rural constituency in which the District was included. The Party was dissolved after the country achieved freedom.

Praja Socialist Party

In 1951 Kisan Mazdoor Party was one of the influential political parties of the District. Socialist party was also working in the District. The latter contested the Hoshangabad Lok Sabha seat but lost it securing only 19.07 per cent of valid votes during the first General Elections of 1951-52. As regards the 4 Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly seats of the District, the former party tried to win 3 seats but it could secure only one seat of Gadarwara constituency in which the party candidate secured 48 per cent of the valid votes polled. In two other constituencies, *viz.*, Chichli and Narsimhapur the Party could gain 26 and 10 per cent of valid votes, respectively. Subsequently the Socialist Party and Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party were merged into one in 1954–55 and came to be known as Praja Socialist Party. In the General Elections of 1957 the Lok Sabha seat was contested and lost by the Party, securing only 41.22 per cent of valid votes polled. The four Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly seats were contested by the Party and it lost all of them. In Gotegaon and Narsimhapur constituencies the Party could secure only 38.39 and 42.80 per cent of valid votes, respectively. In the double-member Gadarwara constituency the candidates of the Party could obtain only 18.47 and 18.65 per cent of votes, respectively and yielded their seats to the Congress candidates. In the General Elections of 1962 the Party captured the Lok Sabha seat as well as the 4 Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly seats. In the Elections to Lok Sabha the Party secured 30.90 per cent of total valid votes while in Gadarwara, Sainkheda, Gotegaon, and Narsimhapur Legislative Assembly constituencies the Party gained 57.65, 47.38, 72.81 and 48.17 per cent of votes, respectively.

In the General Elections of 1967 the Party lost the Lok Sabha seat which it had won in 1962. Its candidate could gain 1,08,961 votes out of the 2,40,232 valid votes polled in the constituency. In respect of Vidhan Sabha seats its candidates could capture none of the four. In Gadarwara and Bohani constituencies out of the 26,218 and 30,748 valid votes the Party could get 4,815 and 11,145 votes respectively, while the candidates of the Party in Narsimhapur and Gotegaon constituencies could secure 5,153 and 3,084 valid votes out of the 32,364 and 32,883 valid votes cast in those constituencies, respectively.

The Membership of the Party in the District is about 2,000.

Bhartiya Jan Sangh

The Party started functioning in the District from the year 1951. In the General Election of 1951-52, the Party contested the Lok Sabha seat and *lost it securing only 20.5 per cent of total valid votes polled. The Party* also contested the Gotegaon Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly seat and lost it, gaining only 35 per cent of the total valid votes.

In the General Elections of 1957 the Party unsuccessfully contested the Narsimhapur Legislative Assembly seat and secured only 7.12 per cent of valid votes. In the General Elections of 1962 the Party contested the parliamentary seat and lost it by securing only 4.37 per cent of total valid votes polled. It also contested Sainkheda and Gotegaon Legislative Assembly seats and gained only 11.13 and 5.12 per cent of the total valid votes, respectively.

Jan Sangh, in the General Elections of 1967, abstained from contesting the Lok Sabha seat, while its four candidates contesting the four Vidhan Sabha seats in the District were defeated by the candidates of the Congress. They could get only 3,206 and 1,720 votes out of the 26,218 and 30,748 valid votes polled in Gadarwara and Bohani constituencies, respectively. Out of the 32,364 valid votes cast in Narsimhapur constituency the Sangh candidate could get 6,943 votes. In Gotegaon constituency the candidate of the Party secured 4,258 votes out of the 32,883 valid votes polled.

Rama Rajya Parishad

In the second General Elections of 1957 the Party for the first time contested Gotegaon Legislative Assembly seat and by securing only 11.82 per cent of the total valid votes lost it. In the third General Elections of 1962 the Party unsuccessfully contested three of the four Assembly seats of the District. In Gadarwara and Sainkheda constituency election it could secure only 9.86 and 17.65 per cent of valid votes, respectively, while the percentage was 10.47 in Narsimhapur constituency.

The following table provides the number of seats in Union and State Legislatures under which the District was covered, number of electors, total number of valid votes polled, number of contesting candidates, seats won and the number of valid votes polled by various parties at the General Elections of 1951-52, 1957 and 1962.

Class of Legislature and year of election		(a) Number of seats (b) No. of electors (c) Total No. of valid votes polled	(a) No. of contestants (b) No. of seats won (c) No. of valid votes polled by				
			Congress	P.S.P.	R.R.P.	J.S.	Independents
Lok Sabha							
1951-52	(a)	1	1	(Socialist)	—	—	2
	(b)	3,64,350	1	1	—	—	
	(c)	1,64,838	65,375	20,653	—	—	78,810
1957	(a)	1	1	1	—	—	—
	(b)	3,50,094	1	—	—	—	—
	(c)	1,44,358	84,857	59,501	—	—	—
1962	(a)	1	1	1	1	—	—
	(b)	3,85,818	—	1	—	—	—
	(c)	1,74,191	53,878	72,649	4,038	7,626	35,421
1967	(a)	1	1	1	—	—	—
	(b)	4,57,504	1	—	—	—	—
	(c)	2,40,232	1,31,271	1,08,961	—	—	—
Vidhan Sabha							
1951-52	(a)	4	4	3	—	1	6
	(b)	1,79,617	3	1	—	—	—
	(c)	79,315	35,326	18,245	—	6,372	19,432
1957	(a)	4	4	4	1	1	2
	(b)	1,77,273	4	—	—	—	—
	(c)	1,21,735	65,513	46,904	2,780	1,790	4,618
1962	(a)	4	4	4	3	2	—
	(b)	1,93,346	—	4	—	—	—
	(c)	91,168	29,838	51,086	7,436	2,813	—
1967	(a)	4	4	4	—	4	5
	(b)	2,24,527	4	—	—	—	—
	(c)	1,22,213	61,903	24,197	—	16,127	19,986

NEWSPAPERS

The first Hindi monthly magazine of the District made its appearance from a lithographic press at Narsimhapur on the 1st March[1], 1885. The name

1. C.P. Administration Report, 1888-89, Appendix C-1.

of the magazine was *Saraswati Vilas* and it was. started by Shri Nanhelal of Narsimhapur. The magazine ceased publication from October[1] 1889 for want of support. This was followed by a Hindi fortnightly by name *Arya Sewak*, an organ of the provincial Arya Pratinidhi Sabha, headquarters of which was at Narsimhapur. Since the year 1909 it was converted into a monthly.[2] The year 1901 witnessed the appearance of another monthly magazine *Hindi Master*[3] published from Narsimhapur. Available sources[4] indicate that these two periodicals were continuing their publication till at least the year 1922. *Monitor*, which appears to be a journal of the school boys was started in 1912 and it continued till 1916.[5] *Gahoi Vaishya Patrika* made its appearance in 1916 at Narsimhapur.[6] The concluding years of the first quarter of this Century witnessed the publication of at least three periodicals, all from Narsimhapur. Thus *Shahakari Sakha*, a monthly probably devoted to the co-operative movement, an educational monthly magazine *Shikshamrita*[7] and a weekly *Nrisimha* were in circulation during the years 1923 to 1925. Of these the first is said to have ceased publication sometime in the year 1926. Nothing is known about the rest of these periodicals.

By the end of the third decade of this Century, a Hindi fortnightly, *Satya*, though printed at Gadarwara, was being published at Narsimhapur. It is said to have ceased its publication after a very short period. *Krishak Bandhu* edited by Thakur Niranjan Singh started its publication as a Hindi fortnightly from Narsimhapur sometime in 1934. In 1925 only eight issues of the journal were printed from Gadarwara. The *Krishak Bandhu* is said to have continued for about four years, but its publication was very irregular. A Hindi monthly magazine *High School Patrika* was published from Gadarwara in 1935. In the same year the *Patrika* ceased its publication. Probably from November, 1942 *Paliwal Mitra*, a Hindi monthly devoted to the interests of Paliwal Brahmanas was printed at Itarsi and published at Chawarpatha, a large village of Gadarwara tahsil of the District. It continued till the year 1945.

Sometime in October, 1948, the first political Hindi weekly by name *Uday* started its publication from Narsimhapur. It was a pro-socialist journal. It criticised the Government and Government servants. From May, 1952 the paper closed its publication. Its circulation and influence were limited.

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1. Ibid., 1889-90, p. 105.
2. A.P. Bajpai, *Samachar Patron ka Itihas*, p. 237.
3. Ibid., p. 239.
4. C.B. Ray, *Narsimhapur Nayan*, p. 58.
5. A.P. Bajpai, op. cit., p. 271.
6. Ibid., p. 284.
7. Ibid., p. 315.
8. Ibid., *Parishishta*-2.

The year 1950 witnessed the rise and closure of the fortnightly Hindi journal *Vidyarthi*, published from Kareli. The fortnightly, meant for the student community, was printed at Narsimhapur. It continued only for four months. *Desh Bandhu*, the second political weekly in Hindi, appeared from Kareli in October, 1956. It was an organ of the Congress Party and was printed at Gadarwara. Its circulation was limited and it ceased its publication from 25th February, 1957. As an official organ of the Praja Socialist Party of the District, *Uday*, a Hindi weekly, appeared from 1st January, 1957 from Narsimhapur. In the same year, after enjoying a short life it ceased.

Udaya Times, a Hindi weekly made its first appearance at Narsimhapur on the 30th October, 1962. Its printing at Narsimhapur was discontinued from 1st July, 1963. Its last two issues published on 1st and 20th August, 1963 were printed at Gadarwara.

The history of the newspapers of the District given above will make it clear that the contribution of the District in this respect is not much. Naturally, the growing number of readers have to rely for news and information upon the newspapers and periodicals published outside the District.

The names of the newspapers and periodicals published in other districts within or without the State and which are in considerable circulation in the District are mentioned below.

Among the extra-State dailies figure the *Times of India*, *Hindustan Times*, *Free Press Journal* and *Northern India Patrika* in English, and *Nava-Bharat Times* and *Vir Arjuna* in Hindi. The extra-State English and Hindi weekly papers include *Blitz*, *Organiser*, *Hindi Times*, *Saptahik Hindustan*, *Dharmayug* and *Panchjanya*. Fortnightlies and Monthlies include *Film Fare*, *Madhuri*, *Femina*, *Caravan*, *Sarita*, *Sarika*, *Parag*, *Navanit*, *Jnanodaya*, etc.

Among the intra-State dailies figure the *Hitavada* and the *M. P. Chronicle* in English and *Nava-Bharat*, *Nai-Dunia*, *Yugadharma* and *Jabalpur Samachar* in Hindi. A weekly by name *Madhya Pradesh Sandesh* has also circulation in the District.

VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

There has been a fairly long tradition of Voluntary Social Service Organisations in the District. These organisations have done significant work with the object of serving the community in the various spheres of life. The earliest of these organisations came into being as early as in 1870, when the 'Narsimhapur Literary Club of Teachers', designed to afford opportunities of

self-improvement to school-teachers, was established at Narsimhapur.[1] The Club, established on 24th December, 1870 with 111 members, later on started subscribing English, Anglo-vernacular and Vernacular newspapers.[2] The Club appears to have worked till the year 1878-79 only. The year 1879 witnessed the establishment of an organisation by name *Falhum* to work in the field of education at Narsimhapur.[3] References to this institution are available only upto the year 1897-98. From the year 1887-88 an organisation of philanthropic nature 'Anjuman-Islamia' was working at Narsimhapur[4] for the all-round advancement of the Muslims. In the same year a new town-hall of the large village Barha accommodated a reading club of the village.[5] The Newspaper Club was organised again at Narsimhapur in June, 1886.[6] Again references to the establishment of such Reading Clubs at Narsimhapur are available in the years 1892 and 1893.[7] It appears that most of these organisations had a short life. In the year 1887 a branch of the Arya Samaj was formed at Narsimhapur[8] and for some time Narsimhapur was the headquarters of the provincial Arya Pratinidhi Sabha[9] from the year 1888. Subsequent history of these and other organisations[10] which might have been formed in the District is not known.

At present there are some important Voluntary Social Service Organisations in the District. Most of them are cosmopolitan in nature; some of them are engaged in the work of either educational, cultural or social advancement of all, while others look to the physical welfare. Details of their aims, objects and activities are described below.

Narsimhapur Club, Narsimhapur

This registered cosmopolitan institution aims at social, cultural and educational advancement of the people in general. The Club claims to be the oldest organisation of the District. It appears that one of the clubs mentioned above subsequently assumed the name of Narsinghpur Club and continued functioning at Narsimhapur. During the period 1931-56, when the District remained

1. C.P. Administration Report, 1871-72, Appendix C-I.
2. Ibid., 1873-74, Appendix C-I.
3. Ibid., 1897-98, Appendix C-1.
4. Ibid., 1887-88, Appendix C-I.
5. Ibid.
6. Ibid., 1888-89, Appendix C-1.
7. Ibid., 1893-94; 1894-95; 1897-98, Appendix C-I.
8. Ibid., 1897-98, Appendix C-1.
9. List of Political & Quasi-Political Societies in C.P. & Berar for the Triennium ending 30th July, 1939.
10. Kisan Sabhas (1938) of Mungwani, & Barheta. Depressed Classes Association (1938) of Kareli. Mahavir Sewa Dal (1938) of Babai, Vyayam Shalas of Kandeli-Narsimhapur (1933) and Tendukheda (1938), Young Muslim Akhada (1938) of Kandeli, Rashtriya Swayam Sewak Sanghas of Babai (1937), Tendukheda (1938) & Kandeli (1939).

amalgamated with Hoshangabad District, the activities of the Club ceased. With the separation of Narsimhapur District, the Club again started functioning. The Club has also organised a Mahila Mandal, which functions as the former's wing.

The Club arranges lectures of visiting dignitaries and *Kavi-Sammelan* from time to time. The number of members of the Club is 40. The Club provides recreational facilities like outdoor and indoor games for its members.

Shri Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Gadarwara

This registered institution was established in 1914 by some philanthropists of Gadarwara. The main object of the organisation is to spread education and to promote the Hindi language. It is interested in the library movement in the Tahsil and helps Backward Classes and Tribes by providing them suitable books and literature for reading. The library is housed in its own spacious building constructed with the donations received. Annually on an average 5,000[1] people are benefited by the activites of this library. The number of members is 160. The institution runs a mobile library and maintains a reading-room. It helps the Community Block Development officer by supply of books for reading to be issued to the villagers. Facilities for research workers are also provided. A *vyayam shala* is also run by the library for the physical welfare. The sources of income include donations, grant-in-aid, membership fee and rent. Social and cultural activities of nationalist bias are also carried out by the library.[2]

Peace Memorial Library, Narsimhapur

The library was founded in May, 1921 by the public of Narsimhapur. For this purpose donations and subscriptions were collected and savings of war fund (1914-19) were utilised. Its building was constructed during the year 1919-21. Its aim has been to achieve educational and cultural advancement of the people. Its sources of income are membership fee. donations and contributions. The number of members is about 100. The organisation is unregistered and a body of seven elected members runs the library. The Sub-Divisional Officer of Narsimhapur is the chairman of the committee.

Mahakaushal Club, Narsimhapur

The Club was established in the Town in 1924. Its main object is to provide recreational facilities to the members of the Club. Facilities for indoor and outdoor games are provided to the members everyday. Books, newspapers and periodicals are also available in the Club for its members. It receives nearly five hundred rupees per annum from its members as fees while it spends about

1. A Directory of Social Welfare Agencies in Madhya Pradesh, 1958-59, p. 161.
2. Ibid.

Rs 350 per year. Nearly 40 members are benefited by its recreational activities.

Shri Gauri Shankar Club, Gadarwara

In memory of late Gauri Shankar Kabra, a banker and landlord of Gadarwara, this Club was founded in 1925 by his wife and his brothers to promote social, educational and physical welfare of the people of the town. The founders constructed a building and donated it to this cosmopolitan Club. The number of members fluctuates from time to time. In the year 1964-65 their number was 70.

Rudra Pratap Vyayam Shala, Amgaon (Bada)

This institution was organised in 1924 by a few prominent local leaders of the village to promote physical welfare of the villagers. Training in *Lathi*, sword and spear is given to the trainees. The Organisation arranges cultural and educational programmes also twice a year. In the year 1955, through the efforts of the local Gram Panchayat the institution received a grant from the State Government for the construction of its building. The number of members fluctuates from time to time. In 1964-65 the number of members was 65. Students of local school take advantage of this *Vyayamshala* daily.

Mahila Shiksha Mandal, Narsimhapur

This Shiksha Mandal was organised by the citizens of the District in July, 1937, with the aim of achieving all-round advancement of the women of this District. To begin with, the Mandal conducted a Girls Middle School during the years 1937-46. It collected a large amount through donations and constructed its own building at a cost of Rs 60,000. The Mandal also started coaching classes for girls preparing for the matriculation examination. In 1946 the school was taken over by the Government. The building of the school too was taken by the Government on rent. When this school became a High School the coaching classes conducted by the Mandal were discontinued. The Mandal founded a *Bal-Mandir*. It is a registered body and the number of its members is 160. The main source of its income is the rent of its building which was extended by the Mandal by spending Rs. 40,000 collected through donations. The Mandal proposes to build a girls hostel when donations sufficient for the construction work are received.

Rudra Pratap Tournament, Manegaon

This registered cosmopolitan organisation was established at village Manegaon in January, 1948 to cherish the memory of Thakur Rudra Pratap Sinha, by his relatives, friends and admirers. The Thakur died as a *Satyagrahi* in Jabalpur Jail in 1944 due to an attack of small-pox. The main object of the organisation is to promote all-round welfare of the people of this District. Its annual function lasts for a fortnight when tournaments of various games are arranged and cultural programmes are organised. The Organisation has been

recognised by the Directorate of Panchayats and Social Welfare, Madhya Pradesh. The members of the Club try to organise *Vyayam shalas* at various places in the District throughout the year. In about 21 villages of the District, *Vyayam Mandals* are organised and all are associated with this organisation. Besides, 3 *Krishak* Tournaments of 3 villages and one Vahid Tournament of Ganhachar are affiliated to this. All the workers are honorary and their number is 60. The number of annual beneficiaries fluctuates between 15,000 and 20,000. The tournaments arranged by this organisation are attended by many athletic clubs of the State. The Government of Madhya Pradesh gave a grant of Rs. 15,000 in 1962-63 for the construction of a stadium of this organisation, which collected an equal amount for the same work.

Gandhi Sewa Samiti, Bohani

The Samiti was organised in 1951 with the object of promoting social welfare, *khadi* and cottage industries. The Samiti is affiliated to All India Khadi Gramodyoga Ayoga. It initiates village reconstruction programmes and helps villagers of the surrounding area in carrying out the programme. The main financial sources of the institution are grant-in-aid and membership fees. It publishes its annual report. The number of members and beneficiaries fluctuate from time to time.

Nava Yuvak Mandal, Narsimhapur

The Mandal was established in the town in the year 1951, with an aim to promote physical, cultural and educational welfare of the youth of the town. Its main activities are arranging sports, tournaments, cultural programmes and debates in the town. Nearly 100 persons have enrolled themselves as members of the Mandal.

District Education Society, Narsimhapur

This Society was organised by the citizens of Narsimhapur on 14th November, 1958 with the aim of promoting education among the people. Since its inception the Society started and managed a degree college with Arts, Science and Commerce faculties and a *Bal Mandir*. From 1st September, 1964 the college was taken over by the Government with its building newly built with the amount received through donations, subscriptions and grants-in-aid. The *Bal Mandir* of the society is still functioning and about 40 boys and girls take advantage of it every year.

District Co-operative Mahila Mandal, Narsimhapur

It has already been stated while describing the activities of Narsimhapur Club that very recently it had started another wing of the Club for the women of the town. This wing is called the District Co-operative Mahila Mandal and it is for the promotion of women's welfare in the District. This wing of the Club was doing commendable work during national emergency, by arranging exhibitions and sale of cottage industry goods. The amount so collected was deposited in the National Defence Fund. The work of knitting woollen garments for Jawans of the army was also undertaken by the Mahila Mandal.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTEREST

Bachai

(22° 50′ N and 19° 3′ E; MSL 381 m)

This small village of Narsimhapur Tahsil is situated on the Narsimhapur-Lakhanadon road at a distance of about 9 miles (14.48 km.) to the south-east of Narsimhapur. Regular buses are available from Narsimhapur to reach the village. A small river, named Singri, originates from a local tank. A small old fort, popularly known as Tahsil Garhi, exists in a ruined condition in the village. An image of Chaturbhuja or the four armed Vishnu is situated in this *garhi* fort. There is also a large stone, cut into the semblance of a human face. It is supposed to be the head of Kichaka, the brother-in-law of King Virat, with whom the Pandavas had taken refuge during their period of *ajnatawasa*. It is said that, when Kichaka tried to make love with Draupadi, the wife of the five Pandava brothers, Bhima, one of the Pandava Brothers, killed Kichaka and rolled his body into a ball. The stone is said to represent that ball.

Prior to the introduction of tahsil administration system there existed *pargana* divisions in the District of Narsimhapur and Bachai was the headquarters of the *pargana* named after it. It contained 119 villages.

The locality is now known for its cottage industry of manufacturing Allahabad tiles of which there are two registered factories. Villages Agaria and Kanharpani, lying at distances of half a mile (0.80 km.) and two miles (3.02 km.) respectively, to the east of Bachai, have these factories. Near the village Bachai, betel-vine and *parbal* plantations exist at village Chilachone Khurd. The village is famous for its betel-leaf. It has a co-operative credit society.

The village Bachai has a branch post office, an Ayurvedic dispensary, a primary and a middle school, a forest rest house, a P.W.D. rest house, a forest *chawki* and a Gram and a Nyaya Panchayat. A small *gosadan* known as Bachai Amonala Gosadan, run by the Narsimhapur Janapada Sabha, is situated at village Amonala, lying at a distance of about two miles (3.02 km.) from Bachai. The village occupies an area of 968 acres and, according to the Census of 1961, it is populated by 444 persons as against 450 in 1901.

Barheta

(23° 40′ N and 80° 40′ E; MSL 387 m)

This large village of Narsimhapur Tahsil lies at a distance of 14 miles (22 km.) to the south-east of Narsimhapur with which it is connected by road. The confluence of the two rivulets, the Sher and the Machra,[1] is at a distance of about 24 km. to the south-west of the village. In the beds of these streams thin seams of coal and shale are noticed. Thicker seams may be existing under the surface layer. To the south of the village there is a large deposit of white clay. The onyx-like stones of black colour with holes in them, commonly called *Sulaimani* or Solomon's beads are also found in the village.

Barheta and its neighbouring village Nonia are of considerable archaeological interest. Antiquarian remains were once largely scattered over the region. The railway contractors are said to have removed a large number of them. Of the remaining carved and sculptured stones, the best were taken long ago to Berlin and Warsaw by the then enterprising continental tourists. Of the several interesting carvings removed from Barheta and placed in the public garden of Narsimhapur, some have been finally removed to the Central Museum, Nagpur. There were images of 24 Jain Tirthankaras at Barheta. Hundreds of other Jain sculptures carved on stone door frames, pillars and stones were found there. The beautifully sculptured door frame of stone has also been removed to the Central Museum, Nagpur.

Six huge images of Jain Tirthankaras in sitting and standing positions are still lying in village Nonia in a walled enclosure. On the pedestals of these images symbols of the respective Tirthankaras are carved. Thus the moon symbol on one of the pedestals of the images indicates that the image is of the 8th Jain Tirthankara Chandraprabh. These six images are taken to be of the five Pandava Brothers and Vishnu and are worshipped by the Hindus. They are propitiated for curing small-pox cattle diseases, etc. The place where these images are installed is called Pandava and an annual fair called Pandava *Mela* is held there lasting for a week from Vaishakha Paurnima. The Gram Panchayat of the place manages the fair.

It appears that at one time the village Barheta had one of the rare temples dedicated to Surya or the Sun god. A finely carved image of the deity is

1. A rock shelter was found at Bijori on the left bank of the Machra river with paintings in red ochre representing a bison, an elephant and a cock. Over them, in white pigments are scenes of hunting, horse-riding, battle, dance, music, and elopement, besides the figure of a female riding a lion. In the vicinity were found backed blades of chert and jasper. (Indian Archaeology, 1960-61, A Review, p. 60).

found at the village, near the large tank situated on the east of Barheta *abadi*. The place has remains of an old palace, which is commonly believed to be of King Virat, whose capital was said to-be Barheta.

The village has a primary and a middle school, a civil dispensary, a hospital, an outlying veterinary dispensary, a branch post office, a co-operative credit society, and a Gram Panchayat. Bi-weekly market is held on Saturday and Tuesday. The village covers an area of 3,096 acres. Its population according to the Census of 1961 is 2,132 as against 1,600 in 1901.

Barha (Bada)

(23° 20′ N and 81° 5′ E; MSL 360 m)

This large village of Gadarwara Tahsil lies at a distance of 11 miles (17 km.) from the tahsil headquarters to its south. The nearest railway station is Babai Kalan on the Itarsi-Jabalpur main line of the Central Railway, with which the village is connected by a road of the length of 7 miles (11 km). It is said that formerly the place had 12 wards and from this number the name of the place is supposed to have been derived.

Barha was once a part of the large estate comprising a country lying between Chichli in Narsimhapur District and Sohagpur in Hoshangabad District. Daulat Rao Sindhia had conferred this estate and the title *Panch Hazari* or 'Commander of 5,000 horse' on the well known Pindari leader Chitu. The latter is associated with the construction of a fort at Barha. Glass bangles are locally manufactured here.

The village has a primary and a middle school, a branch post office, a Gram and a Nyaya Panchayat and a co-operative credit society. It occupies an area of 2,241 acres and has a population of 2,425 persons according to the Census of 1961. In 1901 its population was about 2,200.

Barman

(28° 30′ N and 79° 40′ E; MSL 343 m)

This large village, widely known for its great sanctity, stands on both sides of the river Narmada. Of the two divisions of this village the larger one, situated on the southern bank of the river, is called Barman Kalan and is in Narsimhapur Tahsil. The portion situated on the northern bank and known by the name Barman Khurd is in Gadarwara Tahsil. The Narmada is bridged here. The village is 30 miles (45.28 km) away from Gadarwara with which it is connected by the Delhi Rameshwaram National Highway (No 26) running through Kareli. The latter is its nearest railway station on the Itarsi-Jabalpur

main line of the Central Railway. Regular passenger buses ply between these places.

Recent anthropological explorations and operations carried out at the place and at Devakachar and Ratikarar clays and cemented gravels have yielded a large number of artefacts and mammalian fossils proving the antiquity of the region.[1] Near the village there is a confluence, held sacred, of the rivers Narmada and Warahi. The place is also known for its number of old temples dedicated to various deities and constructed on various dates, on both the banks of the river Narmada. This array of temples and bathing *ghats* with beautiful flights of steps please the eyes of the visitor. The large temple on the southern bank of the river is dedicated to Shankar. It is popularly called Rani Durgavati's temple and its construction is associated with that famous queen of Garha-Mandla. But an inscription in the temple is dated in Samvat year[2] 1867 and this creates doubt about the association of that queen with the temple. On the same bank one temple of Laxmi Narayana and another called Pisanharis, exist. The latter is said to have been built by a poor female corn-grinder out of her meagre income. The *ghats* and flights of steps of the northern bank lead to a gate known as *Hathi darwaja* or a gate through which an elephant can pass. On this bank too several temples are constructed. Of these, one built by a *bairagi* of Indore is known as Bairagi's Temple. There is also a temple of Rama and Lakshmana in front of which there is a stone pillar depicting past and future incarnations of Vishnu.

At a little distance from the village above there is a small but elevated island in the Narmada. The island contains a temple and a small copper mine, unprofitably worked and abandoned by an English concern long ago. There are also five small *Kundas* or small tanks on the island. These are supposed to have been used by the five Pandava Brothers during their sojourn at Barman, while they were in *ajnatawasa*. A foot-print supposed to be of Bhim is also shown near them.

An annual fair is held at Barman in the months of *Pausha/Magha* or January, lasting for 15 days. The attendance is about 100,000, on the *Til-Sankranti* day, the principal day of the fair. Janapada Sabha of Gadarwara manages this huge fair of the District.

The fair was of great importance from commercial point of view. It was an annual occasion for the purchase of cloth, household utensils and other important commodities for the whole District, in the preceding century. But

1. Indian Archaeology, A Review, 1960-61, p. 15.
2. C.B. Rai, *Narsimhapur Nayan*, p. 60.

now the commercial importance of the fair has declined. In 1864 merchandise worth more than 3 lakhs of rupees found a sale in the fair. The sale proceeds of the year 1892 stood at Rs. 1.57 lakhs. Statistics of sales for the later period are not available.

The village Barman Kalan has schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education, a dispensary, a hospital. a maternity and child welfare centre, a rest house, a branch post-office and a Gram Panchayat. There is also provision for protected water supply. The village covers an area of 1,067 acres and has a population of 1,689 persons as per Census of 1961. Barman Khurd has a primary school. Its area and population as per the Census of 1961 are 1256 acres and 581 persons, respectively.

Bilthari

(23° 00′ N and 78° 55′ E; MSL 334 *m*)

This large village of Gadarwara Tahsil is situated at a distance of about 15 miles or 24.14 km. towards north-east from the tahsil headquarters town. The southern boundary of the village is formed by the Narmada. The village can be reached by bullockcart.

The local tradition identifies the place with the old Balisthali, the place of sacrifice performed by the great *asur* king Bali. This *asur* king, when he became more powerful even than the gods, was ultimately sent to hell by the Supreme God Vishnu who descended in the form of *Vamana Avatara*, the dwarf incarnation. Some silicified fossils and zeolitic concretions are shown by the local people as the ashes of the sacrifice. Fairs of local importance are held in the village. Of them, important are those held on the occasions of *Makar-Sankranti* and eclipses of the sun and the moon.

The village has facilities for primary. middle and technical education, a branch post office and an Ayurvedic dispensary. Its area is 3,076 acres. As per Census of 1961 its population is 1,207 persons as against 1,000 in 1901.

Bohani

(22° 50′ N and 78° 55′ E; MSL 347 m)

This large village in Gadarwara Tahsil lies at a distance of about 6 miles (9.6 km.) to the east of the tahsil headquarters. It is situated on the old Bombay-Mirzapur road. Regular bus service connects the place with Gadarwara. Bohani is also a railway station on the Itarsi-Jabalpur main line of the Central Railway. The village appears to be an old one. It is said that its former name

was Kohani. Local tradition says that this was the seat of Jasraj, the father of the famous Banaphar Rajput Generels Alha and Udal. Jasraj was killed here. Old *cowries* were dug on the site. An inscribed stone, sunk under a date palm tree of the village is supposed to relate to the existence of a treasure buried by one Banjara within a shot of an arrow from the tree.

People of Bohani highly revere and worship the local incarnation of Goddess-Mirhwani Devi. The goddess is supposed to have the power of curing leprosy and blindness. In her honour an annual fair, lasting for three days is held in the month of Chaitra or March/April.

The village has schools for primary, middle and higher secondary stages of education. The high school coaches students in agriculture and has its own agricultural farm. There is also a *Charakha* trainining centre, maternity and child welfare centre, an *Ayurvedic* dispensary, an outlying veterinary dispensary, a branch post-office, and a co-operative credit society. The place is electrified and electricity is available for industrial and agricultural purpose also. The area of the village is 3,458 acres. According to the Census of 1961 the population of the village is 1,590 as against 1,300 in 1901.

Chauragarh

(20° 35′ N and 79° 55′ E.)

This ruined hill fort of the Gadarwara Tahsil lies to the south-east of the tahsil headquarters. It is about 12 miles or 19.2 km. from Gadarwara, and the nearest railway station to the fort being Bohani on the Itarsi Jabalpur main line of the Central Railway. The place can be reached by a journey in bullock cart. The fort is situated in the deserted village by name Chaugan. Formerly Chaugan was a largely populated inhabitation situated at the foot of the hill.

Though completely shorn of its former glory this famous stronghold played an important part in the history of the region during the reigns of the Gond and the Maratha rulers. The fort was very cleverly designed. It encircles within its boundary of defences the entire area of the two adjacent hills and the plateau which is about 800 feet above the level of the Narmada valley.

Numerous masonry tanks to receive rain water and the drainage of the hills for perennial water supply are constructed within the fort. The two hills, thus enclosed are by a dip of about 300 feet. The northern, the eastern and the western faces of the fort are scarped for several hundred feet. A hillock, situated to the south of the fort is called the Bundelakot to commemorate the traditional attack of the Bundelas.

It is said that the fort was built by Sangram Shah, the Gond king of Garha Mandla dynasty in the 15th Century A D.. The capital of the Gond

kings was at Garha. When the famous Rani Durgawati of that dynasty was fighting with the forces of the Mughals, the fabulous treasure was kept in this nearly impregnable fort of Chauragarh. Rani Durgawati died fighting and her son Prem Narayan was removed to Chauragarh for refuge. The Mughal General Asaf Khan besieged and reduced the fort. The Mughal General killed the Prince and looted the treasure of the Gonds. The booty consisted of innumerable gold and silver coins, golden toys, jewels, pearls, gold and silver and 1,000 elephants.

The British reduced the fort in 1818. The western hill within the enclosure contains remains of the palaces of the Gond rulers. Towards the east remains of buildings, built in the Bhonsla regime to house its army, are noticed. Besides these, there is an old temple with finely carved pillars in a dilapidated condition. It contains a broken image of Narsimha (Man-cum-lion incarnation of Vishnu).

At present thick growth of forest has hidden the foundations of the buildings within and the portion of boundary walls. The village Chaugan,[1] in which stands the fort, covers an area of 655 acres with no population.

Chawarpatha

(20° 20′ N and 87° 30′ E; MSL 347 m)

This large village of Gadarwara Tahsil is situated 33 miles (53.11 km.) from the tahsil headquarters, to the north east. It is about 14 miles (22 km.) north-west of Narsimhapur. From both these towns buses are available to reach the place. It is situated on the right bank of the Narmada, only about 2 miles or 3 km. away from Barman, on the road going towards Tendukheda. The nearest railway station is Kareli on the Itarsi-Jabalpur main line of the Central Railway from where buses also are available.

Chawarpatha was formerly the headquarters of a *pargana* containing 179 villages. It formed one of the *Panch-Mahals* of Deori[2] which were held by a Maratha Brahman family which made it over to Sindhia in 1817-18. These *Panch-Mahals* were under British management from 1826 to 1860. In 1860 Sindhia ceded them to the British. Under the British administration Chawarpatha was the headquarters of the tahsil until 1876. The village contains an old Gond fort, a few remains of which are still noticed.

The village has been the headquarters of a Community Development Block from 2nd October, 1953. It has schools for primary, middle and secondary education, a public library, a public reading room, a dispensary, a hospital, a veterinary hospital, a rural health centre, a maternity and child welfare centre, a branch post office, a family planning centre, a centre of cattle breeding extension

1. Chauragarh fort is now locally known as Chaugan fort, after the name of the village.
2. C.B Rai, op. cit.; p. 49.

unit and two back yard poultry units and a Gram and a Nyaya Panchayat. On Tuesdays and Fridays markets are held. The village covers an area of 1,571 acres and according to the Census of 1961 it has a population of 1,149 persons as against 1,000 in 1901.

Chhota Chhindwara or Gotegaon

(23° 2′ N and 79° 29′ E; MSL 364 m)

This small town of Narsimhapur Tahsil is situated on the small stream of the Aibna. The town is 20 miles or 32 km. north-east of the tahsil headquarters, with which it is linked by State High way. Regular buses ply between these two towns. The town is linked by roads with Dhuma, Shrinagar, Narsimhapur, Lakhanadon, Belkheda, etc. The railway station, known as Gotegaon, is on the Itarsi-Jabalpur main line of the Central Railway. The town is known by the name Chhota Chhindwara. It was established by Sir W. Sleeman in 1829 on the old Trunk Road to Deccan for the convenience of the travellers through Narmada valley and for their safety against the Thugs. The name is derived from the word 'Chhind' meaning date palm trees. The prefix Chhota is perhaps added to the name to distinguish it from another Chhindwara, the headquarters town of the Distrcit of the same name.

Through the place is of recent origin it has prospered industrially and commercially. The Municipality of the place was established as early as in 1867. The town has to its credit cotton ginning and bidi factories, *dal* and saw mills. It is one of the important grain markets of the District. A large weekly market is held on Tuesdays in which a large number of cattle are sold and purchased. The town is electrified. Electricity is available for agaricultural purposes also.

The town has a public reading room, a cinema house, cooperative credit and other societies, a pay-office of the State Bank of India, a family planning clinic, a dispensary, a civil hospital, a maternity and child welfare centre, a post and telegraph office, a telephone exchange, a rural health centre, six primary, one middle and one higher secondary school, a rest-house, two *dharmashalas* and a police station. It was also the headquarters of the Gotegaon Community Development Block from 2nd October 1953. Other important Government offices of the place include the office and the Revenue Court of the Naib Tahsildar and the office of the Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board. There is provision for protected water-supply in the town. The municipal area of the town is 1650 acres (6.68 sq. km.) According to the Census of 1961 the town has a population of 7,757 persons as against 4,200 in 1901.

Chichli

(23° 00′ N and 83° 35′ E; MSL 354 m)

This large village of Gadarwara Tahsil lies to the south-east of the tahsil headquarters at a distance of about 6 miles (9.6 km.) The nearest railway

station is Gadarwara on the Itarsi-Jabalpur main line of the Central Railway. Formerly, Chichli was a railway station[1] on the branch line connecting Gadarwara with Mohapani where coal mines exist. When the work on them ceased the branch-line was removed. The village can now be approached by a regular bus service from Gadarwara. It was the headquarters of a *jagir* of one of the influential Gond families. "In 1809 Raja Sangram Shah of Chichli stood manfully by the defeated representative" of the Bhonsla Government of Nagpur to which he owed his *jagirdari*, and gave a set-back to the Pindaris.[2]

The village has a long-standing reputation for its old cottage industry of manufacturing brass and bell-metal products. Though this traditional industry of the village has shown a declining trend the products of the place still enjoy considerable local reputation.[3] The village has a public library, a public reading room, co-operative credit and other societies, a Gram and a Nyaya Panchayat, two primary, and one boys higher secondary school, an Ayurvedic dispensary, an outlying veterinary dispensary, a cattle-breeding extension unit, a maternity and child welfare centre, and a sub-post office. Bi-weekly markets are held on Sundays and Thursdays. Babai-Chichli Community Development Block is functioning from 18th October, 1959. The village covers an area of 2,072 acres. According to the Census of 1961 its total population is 3,378 as against 1,800 in 1901.

Gadarwara

(22° 55′ N and 78° 48′ E; MSL 347 m)

This headquarters town of the tahsil of the same name is situated on the left bank of the river Shakkar. The town is linked by roads with Narsimhapur, Piparia, Kareli, Barman, Sagar, Tendukheda, Sainkheda, Jhikoli and Gotitoria. Regular buses are available to reach the town from all these places. It is also an important importing and exporting railway station on the Itarsi-Jabalpur main line of the Central Railway, lying at a distance of about 28 miles (43 km.) southwest of Narsimhapur, the headquarters town of the District. The town is about one and a half miles (2.4 km.) from the railway station where tongas are available to reach the town. A *ghat* and several temples are built on the bank of the river. The river here is to be bridged shortly.

The name of the town is supposed to be a contraction of the name Gadariakheda or the village of shepherds. Commercial importance of the town dates back to the year 1806 when the Maratha Governor of the region, Nawab Sadik Ali Khan, selected this place as his headquarters. An old *garhi* of that period is in ruins. Subsequent period witnessed all round development of the place. It became a municipal town as early as in 1867.

1. C.B. Rai, op cit, p. 50.
2. Ibid.
3. Narsimhapur District Census Hand Book, 1961, p. Lxiii.

Formerly, in the first decade of this century, the town had to its credit a considerable weaving and dyeing industry which declined in later period.[1] At present, it is the most important centre of trade in grain. Gadarwara pulses have their fair reputation.[2] It is also an important wholesale and retail market in other merchandises like oil-seeds, salt, sugar, cloth, etc. Direct commercial transactions are carried on by the traders of the town with the business community in Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Jabalpur, etc. Gadarwara is now known for its flourishing industries of bidi and *dal* making. Cotton-ginning factories of the old days have ceased their working due to decrease in the production of cotton.

The town possesses a town hall built in 1886, three *dharmashalas*, a rest house, a public library, a public reading room, a cinema house, two printing presses, post and telegraph offices, a telephone exchange, a civil dispensary, a hospital, a family planning centre, a veterinary hospital, an artificial insemination unit and a police-station. The town is electrified and electricty is supplied for industrial and agricultural purposes also. It has a branch of the State Bank of India, a multipurpose co-operative and other societies, offices of the Municipal Council, Janapad Sabha, Sub-Divisional officers of Revenue, and Irrigation, Soil Conservation and other offices of the Tahsil. Educational institutions of the town include five primary schools, a middle school a boys higher secondary school a girls higher secondary school, a technical institution and a private college. Bi weekly markets are held on Mondays and Fridays. Provisions for protected water supply are made in the town.

The town covers an area of 2,920 acres or 3 square miles (7.77 sq. km). According to the Census of 1961 the town has a population of 14,696 persons as against 8,200 in 1901.

Kareli

(23° 55′ N and 79° 99′ E; MSL 358 m)

This municipal town of Narsimhapur Tahsil lies in the south-west direction of the tahsil headquarters at a distance of about 10 miles (16 km). It is an important importing and exporting railway station on the Itarsi-Jabalpur main line of the Central Railway. The town is about one mile (1.6 km.) from the station where tongas are available. It is situated on the National Highway connecting Delhi with Rameshwaram and is linked by roads with Hatwans, Narsimhapur, Sagar, Barman, Deori, Amgaon, etc. Regular buses ply between Kareli and these places. Prior to the construction of the Bina-Katni branch railway line Kareli railway station was an exporting centre for the bulk of the

1. C.B. Rai, op. cit.; p. 216.
2. Narsimhapur District Census Handbook, 1961, p. XIII.

produce of Sagar District. Sagar District used this station as its importing centre too. A mail cart used to ply between Sagar and Kareli.

The place had a Municipality as early as in 1867, but it was closed in 1897. Provisions of the Village Sanitation Act remained in force for about two decades. Subsequently Notified Area Committee was established and it was up-graded into a Municipality, in 1950. As it was one of the cotton producing centres, a cotton ginning factory was established at the place in 1904. By the end of the, forties it was closed.

The town is one of the important centres of trade in grain in the District. There are *dal*-mills, besides industries of hand-loom weaving and manufacturing of bricks and *bidis*. The Electric Power House of the town feeds places like Gadarwara, Narsimhapur, Singhpur, etc. It supplies electricity for domestic, agricultural and industrial purposes. The town has two primary, a middle and a higher secondary school, a civil hospital, a veterinary hospital, a back yard poultry unit, an artificial insemination centre, a post and telegraph office, a cinema house, two printing presses; a telephone exchange, a public library and a public reading room. A pay-office of the State Bank of India, co-operative credit and other societies are functioning here. Weekly market is held on Mondays. The town covers an area of 8.05 square miles (20.85 sq. km.) within its municipal limit. According to the Census of 1961 its population is 8,603 as against 4,000 in 1901.

Mohpani

(22° 45′ N, and 79° 50′ E; MSL 366 m)

This small village of Gadarwara Tahsil lies about 11 miles south of Gadarwara. The village can be reached by bullock-cart or jeep. It is situated on the bank of the river Chitarewa and is known for the coal mines of the locality. When the coal mines at the place were under work the branch railway line from Gadarwara to Mohpani was introduced. Subsequently coal mines at Gotitoria, a village in the neighbourhood, were also taken up.[1] Work in these mines proved unprofitable and was ceased in 1927. The branch railway line was also removed.

The village Mohpani covers an area of 1,403 acres and has a Gram Panchayat. As per Census of 1961 its population is 235 as against 500 in 1901. The village Gotitoria has a police station, a branch post office, an *Ayurvedic* dispensary and a primary school.

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1. C. B. Rai, op. cit., p. 64.

Narsimhapur

(22° 57′ N and 79° 13′ E; MSL 353 m)

This headquarters town of the District is situated on the west bank of a small river, the Singri. On the east bank lies a locality known as Kandeli, which was once a separate village. Subsequently, both the banks of the river were connected by a bridge and a road. Kandeli later on became a part of Narsimhapur Municipal Town. The town is connected by road with Sagar, Jabalpur Hoshangabad, Chhindwara, Seoni, Nagpur Gadarwara, Kareli, etc, within and outside the State. It is now an important railway station on the Itarsi-Jabalpur main line of the Central Railway. Tongas are available at the station to reach the town.

It is said that formerly the town was known by the name Chhota Gadarwara to distinguish it from Gadarwara which was then the headquarters of the region. The District, when it was attached to the British territories in 1818, was known as Gadarwara District. The British seem to have selected Narsinghpur as the headquarters of their district administration and changed the name of the District. The name Narsimhapur was received by the place some time earlier, due to the construction of a temple dedicated to Narsimha (man-lion incarnation of Vishnu). Narsinghpur was once a pargana headquarters too of the same name and contained 230 villages.

A municipality was created at the place in 1867, the town hall of the place was constructed in the year 1891. The public gardens of the hall contains interesting sculptures collected from places of the District, like Barheta. The collection includes carved and scuplitured pillars, doorway, beams, figures and some old guns. "The most interesting is an elaborately carved doorway, which with the exception of the dedicatory block upon the lintel, is in a thoroughly good state of preservation. The traces of figures on the block show that they were Rama and Lakshman seated upon *garudas* or eagles."[1] On one pillar the name *Jogi* Makardwaja with the figure 700 is inscribed. Numerous inscriptions containing the name of this *Jogi* are invariably accompanied by the figure 700. To the north of the town there is a spot of scenic beauty which has natural water springs. An annual fair is held there on the *Makar Sankranti* day. Another spring located in the south-west corner is called the *Sidha ka Jhirana*.

Formerly the town had flourishing handicrafts of hand-weaving, dyeing and book-binding. Narsimhapur is now one of the important centres of trade in grain in the District. Since the opening of the railway to Sagar, Narsimhapur began to get importance as a trade centre. There are offices of the State Bank of India, Co-operative Central Bank, and Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank.

1. Narsinghpur District Gazetteer, p. 225.

The town has a circuit house, a rest house, a cinema house, a public library, a public reading room, two printing presses, seven primary, four middle and three secondary schools for boys and girls. The Arts and Science College of the place coaches boys and girls upto Degree standard. In order to provide technical education a technical institution is also functioning at the town. The town is electrified and electricity is supplied for agricultural and industrial purposes also. Being the headquarters of the District, offices of most of the Government departments are located here. There are offices of the Post and Telegraph Departments, a telephone-exchange, a hospital, an *Ayurvedic* dispensary, a family planning centre, a maternity and child welfare centre, a rural health centre, a *dharmashala* a back yard popultry unit, and an artificial insemination centre. Provisions for protected water-supply are there. The municipal area of the town is 5.68 sq. miles (14.71 sq. km). The population of the town as per the Census of 1961 is 17,940 as against 11,233 in 1901.

Paloha (Bada)

(23° 0′ N and 78° 40′ E; MSL 335 m)

This large village in Gadarwara Tahsil lies 10 miles (16 km) to the north of the tahsil headquarters. It is situated on the bank of the Shakkar river. The village can be reached by bullock cart. During the regime of the Sindhia it was the headquarters of a *jagir* estate granted by the Sindhia to Karim Khan Pindari. The beautiful tank of the village is covered with lotus flowers. It has a branch post office, an *Ayurvedic* dispensary, a Gram and a Nyaya Panchayat, a primary, school a middle school and a boys higher secondary school. Markets are held on every Monday and Thursday. The village occupies an area of 3,576 acres. According to the Census of 1961 its population is 2,796 as against over 2,300 in 1901.

Pithera

(23° 60′ N and 79° 00′ E; MSL 347 m)

A small village in Narsimhapur Tahsil it is situated on the bank of the Narmada and is connected by road with the tahsil headquarters. The distance between these two places is about 11 miles (17 km.)

The village was once the headquarters of a Raj-Gond Raja who acquired a big *Jagir* from the Garha-Mandla rulers. Opposite to Pithera two old temples, dedicated to Shiva and Garuda are standing on the bank of the Narmada. The village is in Kareli Community Development Block and has a primary school, a Gram Panchayat, and a co-operative credit society. It covers an area of 614 acres and according to the Census of 1961, it contains a population of 281 persons.

Salakheda

(21° 35′ N and 75° 55′ E; MSL 329 m)

This fairly large village of Gadarwara Tahsil lies 14 miles (22 km) to the north-west of the tahsil headquarters with which it is connected by a road. It is situated on the Dudhi river. Regular buses ply on the road. It is also connected by roads with Jhikoli, Gotetoria etc Buses are available on these roads also. The name of the village means "the village of the *Saint* or Fakir". The local tradition associates the name of saint Narahari Nanda or Naria with the foundation of this village. The village was once visited throughout the year by people from all parts of India to see Swami Keshavananda. It has a fine tank with a masonry embankment and a well-built masonry *dharmashala*. Once the village was known for its manufacture of handloom cloth and brass and copper vessels.

Large bi-weekly markets are held on Wednesdays and Saturdays. It is one of the important cattle markets of the District. The village is electrified. It has a public library, a dispensary, a post office, a police-station, an outlying veterinary dispensary, a Gram and a Nyaya Panchayat, two primary, a middle and a higher secondary school. It is the headquarters of the Community Development Block of the same name from 1st November, 1961. The village covers an area of 3,510 acres. According to the Census of 1961 its population is 2,535 persons as against 2,300 in 1901.

Sankal

(23° 30′ N and 78° 05′ E; MSL 354 m)

This village of Narsimhapur Tahsil, situated 16 miles (25 km) north-east of the tahsil headquarters lies at the junction of the Hiran and the Narmada rivers. These places are connected by road and buses ply between them.

The name of the village is associated with Shankaracharya who said to have sojourned here for a few days. An annual fair is held in the village in October/November *(Kartik Paurnima)*. Another largely attended annual fair is held on *Makar Sankranti* day.

The village has a primary school, a branch post-office, a co-operative credit society and a Gram Panchayat. It covers an area of 1,888 acres. According to the Census of 1961 its population is 824 while it was 760 in 1901.

Shahpur

(23° 15 N and 81° 15′ E; MSL 369 m)

This large village of Gadarwara Tahsil, situated on the Shakkar river, lies to the south of Gadarwara, and is to the southwest of Narsimhapur. From

both these towns the distance of the village is about 16 miles (25 km.). Bullock cart track leads a traveller to the place.

Formerly Shahpur was the headquarters of the *pargana* of the same name containing 332 villages, and including the bulk of Gadarwara Tahsil south of the Narmada. The village formerly had a cottage industry of dyeing, but now the industry is extinct. It has a primary school, a middle school, an *Ayurvedic* dispensary, a branch post-office, a Gram Panchayat and a co-operative credit society. A weekly market is held on every Friday. The village occupies an area of 2,200 acres. According to the Census of 1961 it is populated by 1,577 persons as against by 1,500 in 1901.

Shrinagar

(20° 55′ N and 79° 30′ E; MSL 396 m)

This large village in Narsimhapur Tahsil is situated at a distance of about seven miles (11 km.) from Gotegaon with which it is connected by road. The road further goes to Dhuma and regular buses ply on the road. The village is also called Umaria because of its situation on the river Umar.

Shrinagar was formerly a flourishing town under the Marathas. It was the headquarters of the *pargana* of the same name containing 219 villages. A *subahdar* and a large garrison, then placed at the village by the Marathas, fought with a detachment of the British troops in 1818. At that time the place had a record population of about 10,000 persons. The village contains remains of large buildings, boundary walls around the town and numerous wells, tanks, and groves. All these speak of the departed glory of the place.

The village has a primary and a middle school, a public library, a branch post-office, an outlying veterinary dispensary, a co-operative credit society and a Gram Panchayat. A weekly market is held on Sundays. It covers an area of 1,125 acres. According to the Census of 1961 its population is 1,210 while it was 1,100 in 1901.

Singhpur

(23° 25′ N and 75° 30′ E; MSL 360 m)

This large village of Narsimhapur Tahsil, situated on the Barurewa river, is about five miles (8 km.) to the south of the tahsil headquarters on the road going to Chhindwara. Regular buses are available to reach the place.

The village was founded towards the end of the 18th Century. It was the headquarters of a Maratha *Amil* or *Kamavisdar*. An image of Lakshmikant located in a local temple, is said to have formerly given out a little gold every day from its mouth, for some time.

The village has a branch post office, an *Ayurvedic* dispensary, a Gram and a Nyaya Panchayat and a back yard poultry unit. Educational institutions of the place include a primary, a middle and a higher secondary school, and a technical institute. Markets are held on every Monday, Wednesday and Friday. Its area is 1,507 acres. Its population, according to the Census of 1961 is 2,278 as against 2,200 in 1901.

Sokalpur

(23° 00′ N and 78° 40′ E; MSL 320 m)

This small village in Gadarwara Tahsil, is about 10 miles (16 km.) to the north of the tahsil headquarters. It is situated at the junction of the Shakkar and the Narmada rivers. Bullock cart track leads a passenger to the village.

The place is regarded holy because, as the tradition goes, long ago a snake-god was advised by a *Rishi* or saint to take bath in the confluence of the rivers at this village to avoid further misfortune of rebirths and deaths. The tradition adds that this was done by the snake-god to reach the heaven. On the *Kartik Pournima* day a huge crowd assemble to take bath at this junction. The *mela* lasts for several days. There is a large *dharamashala* for the pilgrims The village has a primary school and a Gram Panchayat. It covers an area of 852 acres. According to the Census of 1961 its population is 249 while it was 300 in 1901.

Tendukheda

(23° 10′ N and 78° 50′ E; MSL 335 m)

This large village of Gadarwara Tahsil is about 47 miles (75 km.) to the north-east of the tahsil headquarters. It is about 34 miles (54 km.) from the District headquarters town. Regular buses are available to reach the place from both the towns.

The village is an old one and contains two old Jain temples with some stone carvings. Formerly Tendukheda was one of the *Panch–Mahals* of Deori. It was placed by the Sindhia under the British management in 1826 and later on in 1860 it was ceded to the British. The village was known for its local iron industry. The iron was then smelted by the black-smiths of the locality from mines in the neighbourhood. Articles made of this iron had then a good reputation. This flourishing cottage industry declined subsequently due to the introduction of cheap machine made articles in the market. Efforts are being made to revive this industry. A co-operative society of the blacksmiths has been formed for the purpose.

The village has a public library, a public reading room, a co-operative credit society, a dispensary, a Gram and Nyaya Panchayat, a branch post-office, a police-station, a civil hospital, a maternity and child welfare centre, a cattle quarantine station, a primary school, a middle school and a higher secondary school and a forest range-office It has provisions for protected water-supply. A weekly market is held on Saturdays. It is a big cattle market. The village covers an area of 1,857 acres. According to the Census of 1961 the place is occupied by 2,659 persons as against by 2,000 in 1901.

APPENDICES

NARSIMHAPUR DISTRICT

APPENDIX-A

APPENDIX-B

TABLE I

Normals and Extremes of Rainfall*

Station	No. of Years of Data		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual	Highest Annual Rainfall as % of Normal & Year	Lowest Annual Rainfall as % of Normal & Year	Heaviest Rainfall in 24 Hours Amount (mm)	Heaviest Rainfall in 24 Hours Date
Narsimhapur	50	a	14.0	19.8	13.7	8.4	9.1	139.7	395.5	371.9	210.8	37.1	15.0	6.3	1,241.0	147	65	422 1	1891, Sep. 7
		b	1.4	1.4	1.1	0.7	0.9	7.7	16.1	15.2	10.0	2.3	1.0	0.5	58.3	(1942)	(1918)		
Gadarwara	50	a	16.8	14.5	10.7	4.8	10.2	143.8	413.8	363.5	225.3	41.7	16.8	6.3	1,268.2	136	58	311.1	1891, Sep. 7
		b	1.3	1.3	0.9	0.6	1.0	7.6	15.5	15.1	10.0	2.3	0.9	0.6	57.1	(1944)	(1907)		
Mohpani	50	a	13.2	17.5	12.9	5.6	12.9	139.0	478·3	417.8	240.5	51.3	19.3	14.7	1,423.9	158	51	350.0	1913, Aug. 2
		b	1.3	1.4	1.1	0.6	1.1	7.9	16.8	15.9	10.4	2.5	1.1	0.7	60.8	(1944)	(1941)		
Chhindwara	46	a	17.5	21.8	12.9	8.6	10.9	162.3	387.6	368.1	203.2	41.7	18.8	8.4	1,261.8	156	67	285.2	1947, July 22
		b	1.4	1.7	1.3	0.7	1.0	8.8	16.3	15.7	9.8	2.3	1.1	0.8	60.9	(1919)	(1941)		
Tendukhera	46	a	17.8	12.9	10.4	5.3	11.2	156.0	431.3	403.9	202.9	32.3	18.0	7.6	1,309.9	133	65	269.7	1912, Aug. 7
		b	1.5	1.4	0.9	0.5	1.2	8.6	17.2	16.6	9.9	1.9	1.0	0.7	61.4	(1931)	(1918)		
Narsimhapur (District)		a	15.9	17.3	6.5	10.9	148.3	421.2	385.0	216.5	40.8	40 8	17.6	8.7	1,300.8	141	69		
		b	1.4	1.4	1.1	0.6	1.0	8.1	16.4	15.7	10.0	2.3	1.0	0.7	59.7	(1944)	(1920)		

(a) Normal rainfall in mm. (b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 12.5 mm. or more). *Based on all available data up to 1961.

TABLE II
Frequency of Annual Rainfall
(1901—1950)

Range in mm.	No. of Years	Range in mm.	No. of Years
801-900	1	1,401-1,500	10
901-1000	4	1,501-1,600	5
1,001-1100	6	1,601-1,700	2
1,101-1200	5	1.701-1,800	0
1,201-1300	7	1,801-1,900	1

TABLE III

Mortality Caused by Reptiles and Wild Animals (Police Stationwise) (1958-64)

S. No.	Name of the Police Station	Mortalities by	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	Total
1.	Narsimhapur	Reptiles			4	4	3	7	3	21
		Wild Animals	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
2.	Gadarwara	Reptiles			3	2	5	2	2	14
		Wild Animals	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
3.	Kareli	Reptiles	1	6	1	2	–	2	2	14
		Wild Animals	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	—
4.	Suitala	Reptiles	2	–	2	3	1	–	2	10
		Wild Animals	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	—
5.	Tendukheda	Reptiles	–	–	1	–	3	2	–	6
		Wild Animals	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
6.	Mungni	Reptiles	4	–	2	2	3	2	2	15
		Wild Animals	–	1	1	1	–	–	–	3
7.	Themi	Reptiles	3	5	3	4	2	–	–	17
		Wild Animals	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	—
8.	Gotegaon	Reptiles	3	2	3	3	1	–	–	12
		Wild Animals	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	—
9.	Gotitoria	Reptiles	4	3	3	4	1	5	4	24
		Wild Animals	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	—
10.	Sainkheda	Reptiles	1	1	2	3	–	1	3	11
		Wild Animals	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	—
District Total :		Reptiles	18	17	24	27	19	21	18	144
		Wild Animals	–	1	1	1	–	–	–	3

TABLE IV

Population of Scheduled Castes in Rural Areas Only

Name of Scheduled Caste	Gadarwara Tahsil		Narsimhapur Tahsil	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
All Scheduled Castes	8,610	7,887	6,540	6,678
1. Bahna or Bahana	32	37	179	187
2. Balahi or Balai	33	19	—	—
3. Basor, Burud, Bansor or Bansodi	848	830	986	943
4. Chamar, Chamari, Mochi, Nona, Rohidas, Ramnami, Satnami, Surjyabanshi or Surjyaramnami	7,241	6,648	5,095	5,291
5. Dom or Dumar	9	—	—	—
6. Ganda or Gandi	7	—	—	—
7. Khatik, Chikwa or Chikvi	17	15	5	6
8. Mang, Dankhani-Mang, Mang-Mahashi, Mang-Garudi, Madari, Garudi or Radhe-Mang	22	17	—	—
9. Mehtar or Bhangi	400	321	275	251
10. Sansi	1	—	—	—

TABLE V

Population of Scheduled Tribes in Rural Areas Only

Name of Scheduled Tribe	Gadarwara Tahsil		Narsimhapur Tahsil	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
All Scheduled Tribes	9,064	9,436	15,109	14,979
1. Bhaina	—	—	4	—
2. Bharia- Bhumia or Bhuinhar-Bhumia including Pando	620	669	471	312
3. Bhattra	2	3	—	—
4. Bhil	—	—	8	5
5. Dhanwar	10	5	—	—
6. Gond*	7,626	7,917	13,591	13,654
7. Kol	85	87	312	368
8. Korku including Bopchi, Mouasi, Nihal or Nahul and Bondhi or Bondeya	—	1	—	—
9. Korwa including Kodaku	7	3	—	—
10. Oraon including Dhanka and Dhangad	421	417	381	374
11. Pardhan, Pathari and Saroti	258	311	338	263
12. Pardhi including Bahelia or Bahellia, Chita-Pardhi, Langoli-Pardhi, Phans -Pardhi, Shikari, Takankar and Takia	35	23	—	—
13. Parja	—	—	4	3

*Gond includes:- Arakh or Arrakh, Agaria, Asur, Badi, Maria or Bada Maria, Bhatola, Bhimma, Bhuta, Koilabhuta or Koilabhuti, Bhar, Bisonhorn Maria, Chota Maria, Dandami Maria, Dhuru or Dhurwa, Dhoba, Dhulia, Dorla, Gaiki, Gatta or Gatti, Gaita, Gond Gowari, Hill Maria, Kandra, Kalanga, Khatola, Koitar, Koya, Khirwar or Khirwara, Kucha Maria, Kuchaki Maria, Madia, (Maria), Mana, Mannewer, Moghya or Mogia or Monghya, Mudia (Muria), Nagarchi, Nagwanshi, Ojha, Raj, Sonjhari Jhareka, Thatia or Thotya, Wade Maria or Vade Maria.

TABLE VI
Area Under Principal Crops

(In Acres)

Year	Wheat	Gram	Linseed	Tur	Rice	Jowar	Til
1951-52	95,529	1,84,681	7,893	16,779	36,859	68,672	15,376
1952-53	88,531	1,83,212	5,981	19,757	34,954	84,217	14,146
1953-54	92,271	1,85,546	5,614	20,261	33,975	83,411	16,266
1954-55	1,08,305	1,86,493	5,804	18,845	30,950	89,475	22,023
1955-56	1,23,734	1,90,599	8,799	18,081	32,083	85,490	16,408
1956-57	1,30,966	1,99,280	12,037	15,827	33,032	73,332	16,887
1957-58	1,12,395	2,15,129	7,568	16,242	37,252	79,729	13,729
1958-59	1,03,445	1,97,310	9,333	20,067	38,360	1,01,686	15,590
1959-60	1,16,691	1,99,385	9,086	17,972	37,380	94,559	12,963
1960-61	1,19,168	1,98,580	6,347	18,771	36,334	1,03,259	11,298
1961-62	1,23,798	2,00,478	8,091	17,465	35,950	94,126	11,807
1962-63	1,24,268	1,95,321	8,488	18,520	38,521	1,01,471	14 807

TABLE VII

Out-Turn of Principal Crops

(In Thousand Tons)

Year	Wheat	Gram	Linseed	Tur	Rice	Jowar	Til
1951-52 to 1954-55	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1955-56	31.5	41.8	0.8	10.0	8.8	11.2	1.2
1956-57	33.4	65.1	1.0	8.9	10.6	13.0	1.4
1957-58	17.3	27.6	0.4	6.5	8.0	20.5	0.9
1958-59	25.9	35.4	0.8	13.1	11.3	32.1	1.2
1959-60	31.9	42.1	0.8	9.0	10.7	38.1	0.7
1960-61	35.3	48.5	0.5	12.2	10.0	32.8	0.6
1961-62	42.7	45.7	0.9	7.4	15.9	20.2	0.8
1962-63	42.5	60.9	1.0	6.7	11.5	32.2	1.3

TABLE VIII
Livestock Population

Category Census Year	1961	1956	Percentage Change
Bulls and Bullocks over three years	1,00,506	88,926	+13
(a) Used for breeding and work	99,440	87,669	+13
(b) Not in use for breeding or work	1,066	1,257	—15
Cows over three years	85,744	84,085	+ 2
(a) breeding cows :			
(i) In milk	41,050	48,301	—15
(ii) Dry	40,588	31,716	+28
(iii) Not calved	3,469	3,654	— 5
(b) Used for work only	111	64	+73
(c) Not in use for work or breeding	526	350	+50
Young stock (cattle) total three years and under	1,21,587	1,06,450	+14
Total cattle	3,07,837	2,79,481	+10
He-Buffaloes over three years	1,027	891	+15
(a) Used for breeding and work	1,008	832	+21
(b) Not in use for breeding or work	19	59	—68
She-Buffaloes over three years	24,878	25,804	— 4
(a) In milk	12,951	15,132	—14
(b) Dry	10,389	9,158	+13
(c) Not calved	1,195	1,129	+ 5
(d) Used for work only	223	243	— 8
(e) Not in use for work or breeding	120	142	—15
Young stock Total three years and under	24,453	24,459	...
Total buffaloes	50,358	51,154	— 2
Total bovine	3,58,195	3,30,615	+ 8
Sheep	3,407	2,578	+32
Goats	33,401	37,930	+ 1
Horses and ponies	3,386	4,327	—22
Mules	20	20	...
Donkeys	1,296	1,310	— 1
Camels	10	2	+400
Pigs	4,554	3,395	+34
Total livesotck	4,09,269	3,80,277	+ 8
Total poultry	40,966	24,388	+68
Fowls	39,369	23,951	+64
Others	1,603	437	+367

TABLE IX

Collection Under Small Savings Schemes
(1960-61 to 1964-65)

(in Rs.)

Year	Post Office Savings Bank Deposit		Cumulativei Time Depost		Prize Bonds & Premium Prize Bonds	National Plan/Defence Savings Certificates		Treasury Savings Certificates/ Defence Deposit Certificates	
	Gross	Net	Gross	Net		Gross	Net	Gross	Net
1960-61	14,45,000	4,40,213	10,285	10,035	91,915	2,11,260	1,23,020	72,500	72,500
1961-62	13,72,730	3,19,399	17,665	17,335	11,525	1,36,980	50,000	50,000	48,500
1962-63	12,16,083	17,972	26,360	23,400	23,600	2,99,325	2,29,835	49,140	49,140
1963-64	18,74,220	5,45,289	39,764	36,182	—	3,51,675	1,37,146	1,09,200	1,09,200
1964-65	15.99,333	1,93,050	35,242	33,442	—	1,58,765	1,19,581	—	—

TABLE X

Rail-Borne Import Trade of Principal Commodities (1958 to 1964) (in Quintals)

Year	Commodities					
	Rice/Food Grain	Salt	Sugar/ Jaggery	Stone/Lime/ Tiles	Kerosene	General Goods
1958	16,009	7,729	12,506	10,942	7,615	52,738
1959	33,086	18,133	13,476	12,402	10,375	40,301
1960	22,522	23,849	34,426	19,550	12,772	61,306
1961	57,982	21,055	21,286	12,420	8,835	28,252
1962	5,44,334	28,884	26,078	22,766	10,596	35,266
1963	44,944	22,080	19,004	9,695	9,400	65,425
1964	57,041	20,467	26,886	30,148	15,652	1,02,957

Note : 1. Figures in the above table relate to only three stations, viz., Narsimhapur, Gotegaon and Kareli. However, in respect of stone/lime/tiles, kerosene, the information relates only to Gotegaon and Kareli stations.

2. The figures for the year 1958, shown in the above table, in respect of two stations out of three, viz., Narsimhapur and Kareli relate to the period from September to October, and July to December, respectively.

TABLE XI

Rail-Borne Export Trade of Principal Commodities (1958 to 1964) (in Quintals)

Year	Rice/Food Grain	Oil-seeds	General Goods	Charcoal	Timber	Fodder
1958	1,47,121	1,202	10,705	26,043	13,209	991
1959	3,02,049	4,218	20,867	66,974	31,125	1,232
1960	3,98,168	5,288	31,923	63,475	31,787	3,396
1961	3,11,733	24,041	19,414	32,006	30,526	4,005
1962	2,67,670	1,376	11,734	32,139	33,712	6,063
1963	3,59,758	2,962	10,300	34,672	37,270	4,688
1964	2,75,028	5,134	16,735	37,848	49,528	1,578

Note : 1. Figures in the above table relate to only three stations, viz., Narsimhapur, Gotegaon and Kareli. However, in respect of oil-seeds, they relate to only two, and for fodder to only one station in the District.

2. The figures for the year 1958, shown in the above table in respect of two stations out of three, viz., Narsimhapur, and Kareli, relate to the period from September to October and July to December, respectively.

TABLE XIII

Routes Operated by Madhya Pradesh State Road Transport Corporation

S. No.	Name of Route	Distance		Nature of Road: Kutcha		Nature of Road: Pucka		Daily Mileage	
		Miles	Kms.	Miles	Kms.	Miles	Kms.	Miles	Kms.
1.	Nagpur to Narsimhapur *via* Seoni	159	255.89	—	—	159	255.89	318	511.77
2.	Seoni—Narsimhapur *via* Lakhnadon	80	128.75	—	—	8	128.75	480	772.49
3.	Lakhnadon-Narsimhapur	42	67.59	—	—	42	67.59	160	257.5
4.	Chhindwara- Narsimhapur	80	128.75	—	—	80	128.75	480	772.49
5.	Sagar—Burman	66	106.22	—	—	66	106.22	524	883.3
6.	Sagar—Deori *via* Burman	40	64.37	—	—	40	64.37	240	386.24
7.	Deori to Burman	26	41.84	—	—	26	41.84	52	83.60
8.	Burman—Tendukheda	15	24.14	—	—	15	24.14	90	144.84
9.	Burman—Narsimhapur *via* Kareli	19	30.58	—	—	19	30.58	152	244.68
10.	Sagar— Narsimhapur *via* Burman	85	136.79	—	—	85	136.79	340	547.16
11.	Amgaon—Kareli	5	8.05	—	—	5	8.05	30	48.36
	Routes Operated by Privately Owned Services								
1.	Gadarwara – Jhikoli *via* Sainkheda	19	30.58	6	9 66	13	20.92	76	122.31
2.	Gadarwara – Sainkheda	14	22.58	—		4	22.53	112	182.25
3.	Sainkheda—Jhikoli	6	9.66	6	9.66	—		12	19.31
4.	Gadarwara--Narsimhapur *via* Kareli	33	53.11	—		33	53.11	132	212.23
5.	Narsimhapur—Piparia *via* Gadarwara	68	109.44	—		68	109.44	288	463.49
6.	Khamaria — Piparia *via* Narsimhapur and Gadarwara	101	162.54	30	48.28	71	114.26	202	225.9
7.	Gadarwara—Tendukheda *via* Kareli, Burman	46	74.33	—		46	74.03	92	148
8.	Gadarwara—Gotetoria — Sainkheda	16	25.75	16	25.75	—		32	51
9.	Gotegaon— Narsimhapur *via* Bolkhedi	25	40.23	25	40.23	—		100	163
10.	Lakhnadon- Narsimhapur *via* Gotegaon and Dhuma	69	111.04	62	99.78	7	10.27	138	222
11.	Baretha—Narsimhapur	18	28.97	18	28.97	—		36	57
12.	Sankal—Narsimhapur	16	25.75	16	25.75	—		64	103
13.	Gotegaon — Dhuma *via* Shrinagar	32	53.11	32	53.11	—		66	106

TABLE XIII

Judicial : Nature and Number of Cases Disposed of

Year	Total No. of Offences Reported under I.P.C., Special and Local Laws and Cr.P.C.	Disposed of by Magistrates: No. of Cases: Disposed of	Disposed of by Magistrates: No. of Cases: Pending	Disposed of by Magistrates: No. of Persons: Disposed of	Disposed of by Magistrates: No. of Persons: Pending	Persons Convicted Under Various Offences: Affecting Human Body	Persons Convicted Under Various Offences: Against Property	Persons Convicted Under Various Offences: Affecting Public Health	No. of Persons Punished: Imprisonment	No. of Persons Punished: Fines	No. of Persons Punished: Whipping	No. of Persons Punished: Security Taken	No. of Persons Punished: Persons Dealt With Under Borstal Act	No. of Persons Punished: Death Sentence
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1956	2,037	1,936	463	3,057	1,293	77	197	37	58	1,868	—	17	2	N.A.
1957	1,938	2,116	264	4,088	802	65	269	18	90	2,476	—	13	—	N.A.
1958	2,342	2,302	282	3,880	6,663	91	22	13	116	2,196	—	52	14	1
1959	2,016	1,937	350	3,712	982	68	182	8	104	1,930	—	53	15	3
1960	1,740	1,790	290	3,608	954	82	1,441	17	150	1,955	—	81	2	Nil
1961	1,804	1,838	247	3,171	975	79	139	25	135	1,557	—	71	2	2
1962	1,641	1,190	693	2,284	1,638	32	163	12	235	1,324	—	58	4	1
1963	1,546	402	672	931	1,587	116	49	124	84	6,155	—	107	1	—
1964	1,862	548	848	3,314	2,172	120	65	3,325	182	9,242	—	212	—	—

Year	No. of Witnesses Discharged On 1st to 4th Day of Trial	Witnesses Examined: Amount Disbursed As Diet Money to Witnesses (Rs.)	Amount of Fine Imposed (Rs.)	Amount of Fine realised (Rs.)	Amount of Fine Written of (Rs.)
1	16	17	18	19	20
1956	3,046	5,452	19,953 (3,680)	17,609	4,215
1957	2,386	6,493	35,937 (1,809)	28,076	980
19 5	3,535	9,336	27,508 (8,760)	27,281	5,172
1959	2,341	6,651	29,267 (3,825)	27,929	3,913
1960	3,680	8,870	55,503 (1,250)	47,546	3,607
1961	3,070	6,485	27,789 (5,900)	22,544	6,550
1962	1,339	2,615	23,367	15,990	537
1963	946	2,697	6,155	15,095	2,577
1964	1,701	4,975	9,227	16,192	425

Note : Figures in brackets in Col. 18 show fines pending.

TABLE XIV

Number of Educational Institutions (1964-65)

Institutions	Narsimhapur Tahsil						Gadarwara Tahsil					
	Govt.	Janapada	Municipal	Tribal Welfare Deptt.	Private Local	Total	Govt.	Janapada	Municipal	Tribal Welfare Deptt.	Private Local	Total
Pre-Primary Schools	—	6	—	1	2	9	4	—	—	—	—	4
Primary Schools	39	145	13	5	1	203	43	132	4	5	1	185
Middle Schools	19	31	—	1	—	51	16	23	—	1	—	40
High Schools & Higher Secondary Schools	6	4	—	—	4	14	4	6	—	—	2	12
Degree Colleges	1	—	—	—	1	2	—	—	1	—	—	1
Basic Training Schools (B.T.Is.)	1	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	1
Social Education Centres	21	—	—	—	—	21	15	—	—	—	—	15

TABLE XV

Progress of Social Education Scheme (1956-57 to 1964-65)

Name of the Scheme	Years								
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
No. of camps organised	2	4	12	16	31	35	60	45	42
No of persons benefited	110	205	620	1,295	1,680	1,712	3,024	2,295	2,210
No. of cinema-shows	150	80	70	90	75	160	182	134	106
No. of Kalapathak programmes	40	90	75	50	120	84	80	151	103
No. of Drama shows	72	68	71	115	82	90	95	84	96
No. of audio-visual programmes regarding social education	73	65	51	70	64	53	55	42	36
No. of radio-centres	17	32	67	66	60	61	48	52	60

TABLE XVI

Locations of Primary Health Centres and Sub-Centres

S.No.	Name of the Development Block	Location of Primary Health Centre	Location of Sub-Centre
1.	Gotegaon	Gotegaon	1. Bagaspur 2. Kullaha 3. Kamod
2.	Harrai Haveli (Chawarpatha)	Chawarpatha	1. Deori 2. Bohani 3. Tendukheda
3.	Narsimhapur	Dhamna	1. Murgakheda 2 Bachai 3. Mungawani
4.	Babai Chichli	Sali-Chauka	1. Karapgaon 2. Basuria 3. Chichli
5.	Kareli	Kareli	1. Paloha (Sautala) 2. Singhpur 3. Amgaon
6.	Sainkheda	Sainkheda	1. Paloha 2. Banwari 3. Piparia

TABLE XVII
Dispensaries

S. No.	Name of Hospital 'Dispensary	No. of Beds	No. of Doctors	No. of Other Para-Medical Personnel				Midwives
				Nurses	Compounders	Dressers	Health Visitors	
1.	District Hospital, Narsimhapur	32	4	6	3	2	—	—
2.	Civil Hospital, Gadarwara	29	3	3	3	2	—	1
3.	Civil Dispensary, Barman	3	1	—	1	1	—	—
4.	Civil Dispensary, Tendukheda	2	1	—	—	1	—	—
5.	Civil Dispensary, Barehta	4	1	—	1	1	—	—
6.	Civil Dispensary, Bareli	2	2	—	1	1	—	4
7.	Primary Health Centre, Sainkheda	8	1	—	1	1	1	3
8.	Primary Health Centre, Gotegaon	10	1	—	1	2	1	4
9.	Primary Health Centre, Salichauka	6	1	—	1	1	1	4
0.	Primary Health Centre, Chawarpatha	6	1	—	1	1	1	4
1·	Primary Health Centre, Dhamna	6	1	—	1	1	1	4
2.	Police Hospital, Narsimhapur	12	1 (Part time)	1	1	—	—	—
.3.	Jail Hospital, Narsimhapur	6	1	1	1	—	—	—

TABLE XVIII
ublic Health Schemes-Expenditure

(In Rs.)

S. No.	Expenditure Head	Second Plan 1956-61	Third Plan 1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1.	Pay, allowances and miscellaneous expenditure over Government hospitals and dispensaries	—	—	11,503	—	—
2.	Primary health centres	14,719	—	15,211	12,645	37,444
3.	Family Planning schemes and clinics	4,437	2,658	11,857	38,871	73,608
4.	Training of *dais*	2,210	140	600	—	—
5.	Training of auxiliary nurses and midwives	—	—	4,542	17,660	20,583
6.	Office of the District Medical Officer/Civil Surgeon	—	—	—	—	—
7.	Medical Officer of Health	—	—	—	—	—
8.	Grants to *Ayurvedic* dispensaries	—	428	3,366	13,036	30,853
9.	Grants to Homoeopathic dispensary	—	1,152	4,128	—	—
10.	Others	—	—	—	7,101	7,272
	TOTAL	21,366	4,378	51,207	89,313	169,760

S. No.	Expenditure Head	Non-Plan				
		1956-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
(1)	(2)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1.	Pay, allowances and miscellaneous expenditure over Government hospitals and dispensaries	2,00,022	1,29,924	1,19,907	1,33,659.70	1,54,885
2.	Primary health centers	—	41,537	42,970	8,606	51,902.70
3.	Family Planning schemes and clinics	—	—	—	—	—
4.	Training of *dais*	—	—	—	420.00	1,847
5.	Training of auxiliary nurses and midwives	—	—	—	—	—
6.	Office of the District Medical Officer/ Civil Surgeon	51,042	12,262	10,353	10,593	20,798
7.	Medical Officer of Health	12,498	4,854	4,542	5,155.80	4,582.55
8.	Grants to *Ayurvedic* dispensaries	—	—	—	—	—
9.	Grants to Homoeopathic dispensary	—	—	—	1,339	1,260
10.	Others	2,977	1,476	1,307	—	—
	TOTAL	2,66,539	1,90,053	1,79,079	1,59,773 50	2,35,275.25

TABLE XIX
Ayurvedic Dispensaries

S. No. (1)	Name of Dispensary (2)	Date of Establishment (3)	Government/ Aided/Non-aided (4)
	Narsimhapur Tahsil		
1.	Bachai	—	Government Dispensary
2.	Jhilpini Dhana	11- 5-1963	,,
3.	Bamhani	1- 5-1963	Government Aided
4.	Karakbel	1- 9-1939	,,
5.	Gorakhpur	9- 4-1953	,,
6.	Khamaria Jhansi	20-11-1954	,,
7.	Umaria	20-11-1949	Non-Government Aided
8.	Rakhi Bhainsa	1- 9-1955	,,
9.	Kamti	26-12-1949	,,
10.	Piparia Lathgaon	30-12-1956	,,
11.	Chandankheda	—	,,
12.	Jhamar	23-12-1956	,,
13.	Umaria Chinki	28-11-1955	,,
14.	Kerpani	6-10-1951	,,
15.	Hiranpur	28-12-1956	,,
16.	Amgaon	28- 8-1949	,,
17.	Naya Kheda	14-11-1960	,,
18.	Niwari	4- 4-1950	,,
19.	Singhpur	—	,,
20.	Mungwani	12-11-1959	,,
	Gadarwara Tahsil		
21.	Chichli	—	Government Aided
22.	Chawarpatha	24- 5-1954	,,
23.	Barhabada	—	,,
24.	Bhorjhir	22- 7-1957	Non-Government Aided
25.	Shahpur	18- 5-1959	,,
26.	Paloha Bada	24- 4-1954	,,
27.	Udani Piparia	1- 7-1957	,,

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
28.	Bhama	28- 9-1954	Non-Government Aided
29.	Khulari	18- 5-1959	,,
30.	Bilchara	18- 5-1959	,,
31.	Gititoria	24- 4-1954	,,
32.	Deori	17- 7-1959	,,
33.	Bamhori Kalan	20-10-1959	,,
34.	Madesur	25-11-1958	,,
35.	Dobhi	18- 5-1959	,,
36	Basuria	17- 7-1958	,,
37.	Jhirana	20-10-1959	,,
38.	Banwari	25-11-1958	,,
39.	Bilthari	25-11-1958	,,
40.	Siregaon	25-11-1958	,,
41.	Panari	20-10-1959	,,
42.	Imalia—Piparia	20-10-1959	,,
43.	Kalyanpur	18- 5-1949	,,
44.	Dhadia	20-10-1959	,,
45.	Kacharkona	25-11-1959	,,
46.	Lilwani	20-10-1959	,,
47.	Bohani	20-10-1959	,,
48.	Khadai	25-11-1958	,,
49.	Sihora	25-10-1959	,,
50.	Bhatera	25-11-1958	,,
51.	Rampura Sainkheda	20-10-1959	,,
52.	Meharagaon	25-11-1958	,,
53.	Sasumar	25-11-1958	,,
54.	Koudia	17- 7-1958	,,

APPENDIX—B 1

List of Important Fairs and Melas

Location	When Held: Hindi Months	When Held: English Months	Local Religious or Other Occasion	Duration (in days)	Average Total Attendance	Agency of Management
			Gadarwara Tahsil			
Jhirya	Chaitra	March/April	Levihki Madiya	7	3,000/4,000	Gram Panchayat
Mithwani	Chaitra	March/April	Mithwani Mela	7	3,000/4,000	Gram Panchayat
Saknalpur	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	20	10,000	Janapada Sabha
			Narsimhapur Tahsil			
Barhat	Vaisakha Sudi 15	April/May	Pandav Mela	7	500/700	Gram Panchayat
Gadarwara Kheda	Pausa/Magha	October	Shankerji ka Mela	5	1,000	Gram Panchayat
Jhansighat	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	1	5,000	Janapada Sabha
Barman	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	15	10,00,000	Janapada Sabha, Gadarwara
Daul	Pausa/Magha	January	Sankrant	2	2,000	Gram Panchayat, Barhat
Jhont Jungle	Magha Sudi 5	January February	Basant Panchami	1	10,000	Janapada Sabha, Narsimhapur

APPENDIX—B II

Weekly and Fortnightly Markets

1. GADARWARA TAHSIL

Urban

II GADARWARA

Ward No. 10 (Monday and Friday)

Rural

Tendu Kheda (Saturday), Bilhera (Tuesday and Friday), Kachar Kona (Wednesday), Dobhi (Monday and Thursday), Bikor (Wednesday), Chawar Patha (Tuesday and Friday), Paloha (Monday and Thursday), Lilwani (Wednesday), Bhour Jhir (Tuesday) Sagoria (Thursday), Nimawar (Tuesday), Piparia Kalan (Not mentioned) Bambori (Sunday), Mowar (Saturday), Tumra (Sunday), Sain Kheda (Wednesday and Saturday) Rampura (Sunday), Bans Kheda (Thursday)Khulari(Saturday), Kodia (Saturday), Banwari (Monday) Sihora (Wednesday) Amgaon (Thursday) Karapgaon, (Friday), Katholia (Wednesday), Kalyanpur (Sunday and Thursday) Shahpur (Friday) Babai Kalan (Sunday) Chichli (Sunday and Thursday) Basuria (Tuesday), Barhabada (Wednesday and Saturday) Singhpur (Monday) Chargaon Khurd (Sunday).

2. NARSIMHAPUR TAHSIL

Urban

I NARSIMHAPUR

Ward No. 6 (Sunday), Ward No, 15 (Tuesday)

III KARELI

Ward No. 5 (Monday)

IV CHHOTA CHHINDWARA

Ward No. 1 (Tuesday) Ward No. 2 (Tuesday) Wards No. 3 (Tuesday) Ward No. 4 (Tuesday)

Rural

Location Code Number and name of village :—

Sua Tola (Wednesday), Bagdari (Sunday) Kerpani (Narmada Ghat) (Thursday), Jhamar Chandpur (Thursday), Saliwala Bandol (Saturday) Narwara (Friday), Nayagaon (Wednesday) Themi (Friday), Kamti (Friday), Lathgaon (Thursday) Bagaspur (Wednesday), Deonagar Chhipoko (Saturday), Bauchhar (Monday), Shri Nagar (Sunday), Bedu (Sunday), Nagwara (Thursday), Umariya Shrinagar, (Monday), Dongidhana (Thursday), Singpur (Monday, Wednesday and Friday), Barebeta (Saturday and Tuesday), Amgaon (Wednesday and Saturday), Niwari (Friday) Mungwani (Friday), Dudwari (Monday).

APPENDIX—B III
List of Rest Houses and Dak Bungalows

S. No.	Location of Rest House and Dak Bungalow	Name of Road	Exact Situation
1.	Narsimhapur		
	(a) Rest House	Sagar-Narsimhapur Road	53rd mile (85.30 Km.)
	(b) Circuit House	— do —	4th mile (6.44 Km.)
2.	Kareli R. H.	Sagar-Narsimhapur Road	8th mile (12.87 Km.)
3.	Burman R. H.	Junction of old Bombay Road and Sagar-Narsimhapur Road	9.25 miles (14.73 Km.) from Kareli Railway Station
4.	Gadarwara R.H.	Junction point of Old Bombay Road with Kareli Station Road	1 mile (1.61 Km.)
5.	Dobhi R.H.	Burman—Tendukheda Road	4th mile (6.44 Km.)
6.	Tendukheda R.H.	Burman-Tendukheda Road	16.50 miles (26.55 Km.) from Burman
7.	Bachai R.H.	Narsimhapur—Lakhanadon Road	11th mile (17.70 Km.)
8.	Gotegaon R.H.	Old Bombay Road	19 miles (30.58 Km.) from Narsimhapur

APPENDIX-B IV

Conversion Tables

WEIGHTS

TABLE

10 milligrams (mg)	=1 centigram
10 centigrams	=1 decigram
10 decigrams	=1 gram (1 g=1,000 mg)
10 grams	=1 dekagram
10 dekagrams	=1 hectogram
10 hectograms	=1 kilogram (1 kg=1,000 g)
10 kilograms	=1 myriagram
10 myriagrams	=1 quintal
10 quintals	=1 metric tonne (1 tonne=1,000kg)

From old units to new units :

1 tola	=11.66 grams
1 chhatak	=58.32 grams
1 seer	=933.10 grams
1 maund	=37.32 kg.
1 grain	=0.0648 gram
1 ounce	=28.35 grams
1 pound	=453.59 grams =·45359 kg.
1 quarter	=12.706 kg.
1 hundred weight	=50.80 kg.
1 ton	=1,016.05 kg.

From new units to old units :

1 gram	=0.085735 tola =15.4324 grains =0.0352740 ounce
1 kilogram	=1.07169 seer =2.20162 lbs.
1 quintal	=2.67923 maunds =220.46 lbs.
1 metric tonne	=26.7923 maunds =0.9842 ton

II. LENGTH

TABLE

10 millimetres (mm)	=1 centimetre (cm)
10 centimetres	=1 decimetre
10 decimetres	=1 metre (1 m=100 cms=1,000mm)
10 metres	=1 dekametre
10 dekametres	=1 hectometre
10 hectometres	=1 kilometre (1 km=1,000m.)

From old units to new units :

1 inch	=2.54 cms =25.4 mms =0.0254 m.
1 foot	=30.48 cms =0.3048 m.
1 yard	=91.44 cms =0.9144 m.
1 furlong	=201.168 m.
1 mile	=1.609344 km. =1609.344 m.
1 chain	=20.1168 m.

From new units to old units :

1 mm.	=0.0394 inch
1 cm.	=0. 393701 inch
1 decimetre	=3.937 inch
1 m.	=1.09361 yds. =3.28084 feet =39.3701 icches =0.0497097 chain =0.00497097 furlong
1 hectometre	=0.062173 mile
1 kilometre (km)	=0.62137 mile

III. CAPACITY

TABLE

10 millilitres (ml)	=1 centilitre
10 centilitres	=1 decilitre
10 decilitres	=1 litre (1 L=1,000ml.)
10 litres (L)	=1 dekalitre
10 dekalitres	=1 hectolitre
10 hectolitres	=1kilolitre

From old units to new units :

1 ounce	=28 ml (to the nearest ml.)
1 gill	=142 ml. (—do—)
1 pint	=568 ml. (—do—) =0.56825 L
1 quart	=1 litre and 136 ml. (—do—) =1.13649 L
1 gallon	=4.54596 L
1 liquid seer	=940 ml. (to the nearest 10 ml)

From new units to old units :

1 litre	=1.75980 pints
	=0.87990 quart
	=0.219975 gallon
	=1.1 liquid seer — (Approx.)
	=35 liquid ounces (—do—)
	=1000.028 cubic centimetres
	=85.735 tolas of pure water
	=61.025 cubic inches
	=1.000028 cubic decimetres
kilolitre	=1,00028 cubic metres

IV. VOLUME

TABLE

1000 cubic millimetres	=1 cubic centimetre
1000 cubic centimetres	=1 cubic decimetre
1000 cubic decimetres	=1 cubic metre

From old units to new units :

1 cubic inch	=16.3871 cubic centimetres
1 cubic foot	=28 3168 cubic decimetres =28.316 litres
1 cubic yard	=0.76455 cubic metre
1 gallon	=0.00454609 cubic metre =4.5496 litres =4.5 1609 cubic decimetres
1 ounce	=28.4132 cubic centimetres
1 gill	=142 066 cubic centimetres
1 pint	=568.2440 cubic centimetres =0 56825 litre
1 quart	=1.1365 litres
1 litre	=1000.028 cubic centimetres =1.000028 cubic decimetres

From new units to old units :

1 cubic centimetre	=0 061024 cubic inch =0.0070390 gill =0.0351949 ounce
1 cubic decimetre	=0 0353147 cubic foot =0.219969 gallon =0.99997 litre
1 cubic metre	=35.315 cubic foot =1 30795 cubic yard =219.969 gallon =0.99997 kilolitre

V. AREA

TABLE

100 sq mm.	=1 sq. cm.
100 sq cm.	=1 sq. decimetre
100 sq decimetres	=1 sq. metre (1 sq. m.=10,000 sq. c. m.)
100 sq. metres	=1 ar. or 1 sq. dekametre
100 ares	=1 hectare or 1 sq. hectometre (1 hectare (ha)=10,000 sq. m.)
100 hectares	=1 sq .kilometre

From old units to new units :

1 sq. inch	=6.4516 sq. cm. =0.00064516 sq. m.
1 sq. foot	=929.03 sq. cm. =0.092903 sq. m. =9.2903 sq. decimetre
1 sq. yard	=0 83613 sq. metre =0.0083613 are
1 cent	=40.4686 sq. metres
1 sq. chain	=404 686 sq. metres
1 acre (4840 sq. Yds. or 10 sq. chains)	=0.404686 hectare =40.4686 ares
1 sq. mile (640 acres)	=258.999 hectares =2.58999 sq. kilometres

From new units to old units :

1 sq. cm.	=0.155000 sq. inch
1 sq. metre	=1550.00 sq. inch =10.7639 sq. foot =1 19599 sq. yard
1 are	=119 599 sq yard =0.0247105 acres
1 hectare	=2.47105 acres
1 sq. kilometre	=0.386101 sq mile

List of Freedom Fighters of Narsimhapur District

Sl. No. (1)	Name of the Freedom Fighter (2)	Residence (3)	Term of Imprisonment (4)
1.	Shrimati Gaura Bai w/o Pati Ram	Chichli	Died in firing, August, 1942.
2.	Shri Mansa Ram Kasera	do	do
3.	Thakur Rudra Pratap Singh	Manegaon	Between 1940-41 & Died in Jail in 1941.
4.	Shrimati Lalita Bai w/o Shri Narmada Prasad	Chawarpatha	Not available
5.	Shrimati Shantidevi w/o Shri Badrinath Chowdhry	Kareli	do
6.	„ Agrawal Dwarka Prasad	Gotegaon	5½ years
7.	„ Baisakhiya Bhag Chand	do	54 days during 1931-1942
8.	„ Baisakhiya Bansidhar	Narsimhapur	In 1932 for 2 years
9.	„ Bhatele Mohan Lal	Kareli	For 4 months
10.	„ Bamroda Phool Chand	Gotegaon	In 1941 for 42 days
11.	„ Barai Govind prasad	Kareli	In 1939-1940 for 8 months.
12.	„ Balram	Shahpur	2-5-1941 to 15-5-1941
13.	„ Behna Rehman	Majwada	In 1941 for 1 month
14.	„ Badri Prasad Hardeniya	Amgaon	N. A.
15.	„ Bhaiyalal	Mungwara	In 1941 for 6 months
16.	„ Bhargav Sheo Dayal	Kareli	In 1942 for 25 days
17.	„ Badai Lyachi	Mohpa	In 1942 for 1 year, 15 days.
18.	„ Bairagi Murlidhar	Khairua	3 years
19.	„ Bhatt Shrinath	Gadarwara	10 months detention
20	„ Bundela Onkar Prasad	Bambni	In 1942 for 9 months
21.	„ Bundela Gokal Prasad	do	do
22.	„ Bundela Santan Singh	do	do
23.	„ Bundela Phool Singh	do	do
24.	„ Bundela Ram Kishore	do	do
25.	„ Chowdhry Sankarlal	Katraj	In 1923, 1940 and 1942 total 2 years, 3 months & detention.
26.	„ Chowdhry Pooran Lal	Kandeli	In 1943 for 29 days
27.	„ Chowdhry Chhadami Lal	Sali Chowka Road	In 1931 for 6 months
28.	„ Chowdhry Lekh Ram	Narsimhapur	In 1932 & 1942 total 1 year.
29.	„ Chourasia Kasi Ram	Sali Chauka	In 1941 for 6 months
30.	„ Chowdhry Nitiraj Singh	Narsimhapur	In 1930-31 for 6 months
31.	„ Chowdhry Badrinath	Kareli	4 years and 5 months
32.	„ Chowdhry Gadadhar	Chawarpatha	4 months
33.	„ Chanchal Amratlal	Gadarwara	6 months
34.	„ Chhawada HalkeSingh	do	3 months

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
35.	Shri Chowdhry Jugraj	Khamaria	3 months
36.	„ Choukse Premlal	Lilwani	6 months
37.	„ Dube Halkoo Prasad	Shed Belkhed.	N. A.
38	„ Dube Parash Ram	Panari	In 1940-1941 for 1 years.
39.	„ Dixit Ganga Charan	Barman	N. A.
40.	„ Gupta Sadhu Charan	Narsimhapur	During 1934 to 1942 total 10 months.
41.	„ Gohla Siya Ram	Shahpur	N. A.
42.	„ Gupta Ram Chandra	Gotegaon	In 1941 for 2 months
43.	„ Har Shankarlal	Baghwar	N. A.
44.	„ Hari Shankar	Bohani	N. A.
45.	„ Harjal Dulichand	Narsimhapur	In 1941 for 7 months, 15 days.
46.	„ Harlal Nai	Bamhni	In 1942 for 9 months
47.	„ Halkoonath	Khairua	1 month and 21 days
48.	„ Jain Mangal Chand	Kandeli	In 1930 for 4 months
49.	„ Jaiswal Shyamlal	Gotegaon	In 1941 for 4 months
50.	„ Jharia Bhagwat Prasad	Kareli	In 1940-41 total 3½ months
51.	„ Jain Babulal	Gadarwara	In 1942 for 1½ years
52.	„ Jain Komal Chand	Kareli	In 1942 for 1 year
53.	„ Jain Yadav Chand	Narsimhapur	In 1942 for 6 months
54.	„ Jain Prem Chand	Gadarwara	In 1942 for 1 year
55.	„ Jain Pandit Lokmani	Gotegaon	In 1942 for 2 years
56.	„ Jain Dalchand	Gotegaon	1 year
57.	„ Joshi Lallu	Barman	6 months
58.	„ Jain Bhag Chand	Tendukheda	10 months
59,	„ Jain Swadeshi Khemchand	do	4 months
60.	„ Jain Shikhar Chand	Gadarwara	9 months detention
61.	„ Jyotishi Laxmi Prasad	Kareli	3 years
62.	„ Krishak Jwala Prasad	Samanapur	In 1923, for 1 year
63.	„ Krishna Prasad	Gadarwara	6 months
64,	„ Kiledar Raghunath Singh	Mungwara	During 1931-1946 for 4 years.
65.	„ Kariya Sravan Kumar	Gadarwara	During 1930-1946 for 1 year
66.	„ Katiya Kanchedilal	Narsimhapur	In 1932 for 6 months
67.	„ Kachhi Mattha	Bouchar	In 1930 for 6 months
68.	„ Kachhi Chotelal	Kandeli	6 months
69.	„ Katiya Daulat Ram	Gotegaon	In 1941 for 16 days
70	„ Kochar Manaklal	Narsimhpur	In 1942 for 1½ years
71.	„ Kishorilal Seth	Chawarpatha	N. A.
72.	„ Khuman Singh Rajpoot	Amgaon	In 1941 for 3 months

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
73. Shri	Kasera Mangal Prasad	Chichli	1½ years
74. ,,	Lodhi Sardar Singh	Khairua	In 1941 for 15 days
75. ,,	Lodhi Holkoo Singh	Amgaon	In 1942 for 11 months
76. ,,	Lal Kunwar	Aamai	N. A.
77. ,,	Lodhi Babulal	Marka	2½ years
78. ,,	Liladhar Brahman	Khurpa	6 months
79. ,,	Mehra Raisa	Narsimhapur	In 1923 for 1 month
80. ,,	Mishra Bhawani Prasad	N. A.	N. A.
81. ,,	Mahajan Beenaji	Amgaon	In 1926 for 3 months
82. ,,	Mushran Shyam Sundar Narayan	Narsimhapur	In 1940 for 10 months
83. ,,	Mohanlal Brahman	Toomra	In 1941 for 9 months
84 ,,	Mukaddam Brajlal	Khairua	In 1941 for 3 months
85. ,,	Mehto Halkoo Prasad	Shahpur	In 1942 for 11 months
86. ,,	Modi Jamna Prasad	Kondia	1½ years
87. ,,	Modi Dalchand	-do	6 months
88. ,,	Mathur Phool Chand	Kareli	In 1942 for 1 year
89. ,,	Namdeo Kanchedilal	Kandeli	From 28-6-1932 to 7-2-1935
90. ,,	Nema Halkoo Prasad	Gadarwara	2 years
91. ,,	Ojha Ganga Ram	Barha Bada	In 1942 for 45 days
92. ,,	Phool Singh	Bamhori	N. A.
93. ,,	Pachori Bala Prasad	Narsimhapur	In 1940-43 for 4 months and detention from 18-8-42 to 30-11-43.
94. ,,	Patel Udai Singh	Kandeli	In 1940-41 for 4 months
95. ,,	Pahup Singh	Basanpani	In 1941 for 6 months
96. ,,	Patel Ram Charanlal	Khairua	In 1941-1942 for 4 months and 25 days.
97. ,,	Pannalal Rajak	-do-	N. A.
98. ,,	Pachori Devi Prasad	Harrai	6 months
99. ,,	Pachori Mool Chand	Shahpur	6 months detention
100 ,,	Sardar Singh Lodhi	Khairu	In 1941 for 22 days
101. ,,	Pandit Bala Prasad	Kareli	N. A.
102. ,,	Rathi Har Narayan	Gadarwara	During 1931-1942 1 year, 10 months
103. ,,	Ram Charanlal	Gotegaon	During 1930-1939 for 6 months
104. ,,	Raja Bhaiya	Khairi	In 1932 for 6 months
105. ,,	Rai Munnalal	Kareli	In 1940-41 for 8 months
106. ,,	Ram Prasad	Gotegaon	In 1941 for 9 months
107. ,,	Ramesh Chandra	Bhainsa	From 4-9-1942 to 31-7-1943.
108. ,,	Rathi Purshottam Das	Gadarwara	In 1942 for 10 months
109. ,,	Ramesh Prasad	Bamhni	In 1942 for 9 months

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
110. Shri	Ranjeet Singh	Amgaon	In 1942 for 11 months
111. ,,	Shrivastav Prem-Narayan	Sali Chouka Road	In 1923 for 21 months
112. ,,	Seth Pannalal	Bohani	In 1932-33 for 6 months
113. ,,	Sheikh Jalam Singh	Badguaon	In 1932 for 2 months
114. ,,	Soni Kanhiya Lal	Narsimhapur	N. A.
115. ,,	Sharma Banmali Lal	Kareli	In 1941 for 6 months
116. ,,	Shridhar Sunderlal	Bohani	1-9-1942 to 1-11-1943
117. ,,	Sharma Sheo Dayal	—do—	N. A.
118. ,,	Singhai Mangal Chand	Gotegaon	In 1941 for 1 year and 10 months.
119. ,,	Soni Madangopal	Kareli	In 1941 for 4 months
120. ,,	Shrivastav Roshanlal	Narsimhapur	In 1941 for 1 year
121. ,,	Sharma Parmanand	—do—	In 1941 for 3 months
122. ,,	Sharma Komal Prasad	Bohani	N. A.
123. ,,	Shahu Girdharilal	Kareli	In 1942 for 1 year
124. ,,	Sunderlal Agrawal	Kondia	In 1942 for 1 year
125. ,,	Sharma Ravi Shankar	Amgaon	In 1942 for 11 months
126. ,,	Shashtri Gaya Datt	Chourakheda	N. A.
127. ,,	Singhai Kanchhedilal	Tendukheda	1 year
128. ,,	Soni Mani Ram	Kondia	4 months
129. ,,	Singhai Bhikam Chand	Gotegaon	15 days
130. ,,	Shrivastav Chhedilal	Barman	1 week
131. ,,	Sharma Chhidamilal	Shahpur	3 months
132. ,,	Thakur Niranjan Singh	Madesur	During 1932-33 and 1941-42.
133. ,,	Tiwari Kundanlal	Mungli	In 1940-41 for 6 months
134. ,,	Tiwari Shankar Dutt	—do—	In 1941 for 6 months and 15 days
135. ,,	Thakur Mangal Singh	Jhamar	6 months
136. ,,	Tiwari Moongaram	Kareli	In 1940 for 5 months and 15 days
137. ,,	Tiwari Bhaiya Lal	Kondia	1 year and 7 months
138. ,,	Tyagi Tulsiram	Karapgaon	In 1941 for 3 months
139. ,,	Tyagi Budhoo Singh	Lokipar	In 1944 for 6 months
140. ,,	Upadhyaya Kalka Prasad	Mungli	In 1941 for 7 days
141. ,,	Verma Babulal	Bohani	N. A.
142. ,,	Verma Narmada Prasad	Chichli	In 1942 for 6 months
143. ,,	Verma Har Chand	Gadarwara	In 1942, 1 year detention
144. ,,	Verma Hulkar Singh	Aamgaon	1 year
145. ,,	Verma Braj Bhoosanlal	Madesur	N. A.
146. ,,	Yadav Bala Prasad	Madesur	During 1940-42 total 1 year, 2 months

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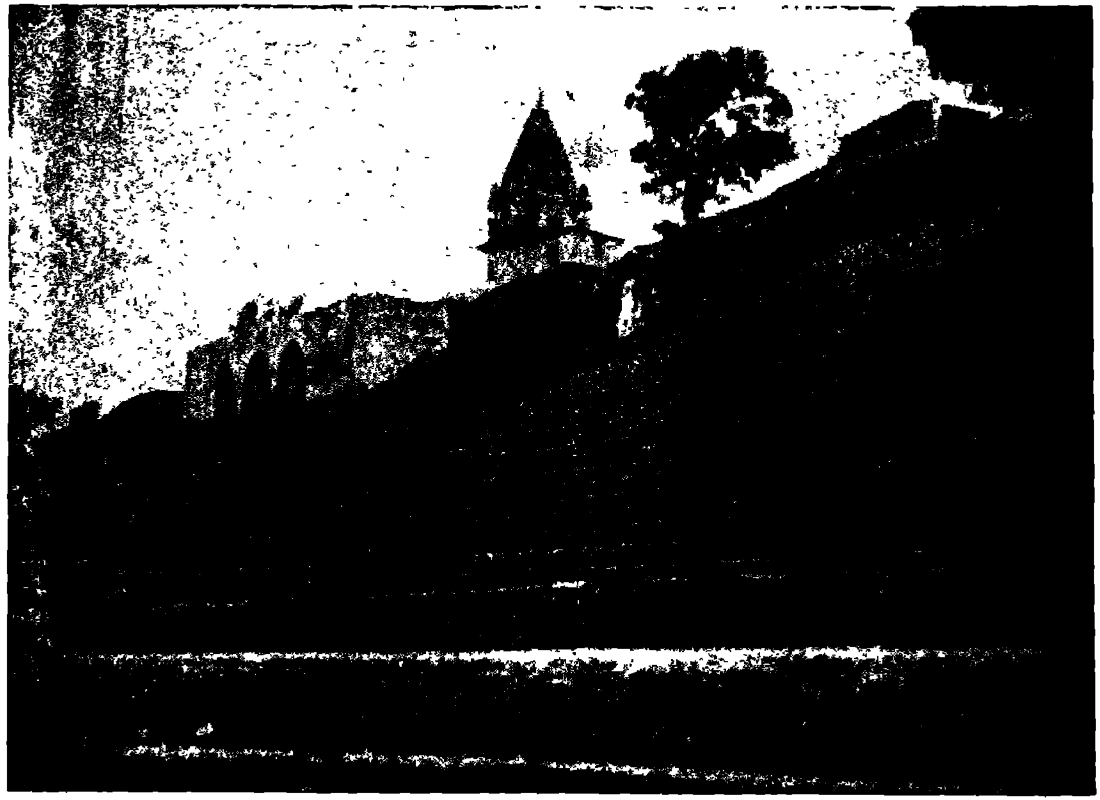
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Rani Durgavati Temple, Barman



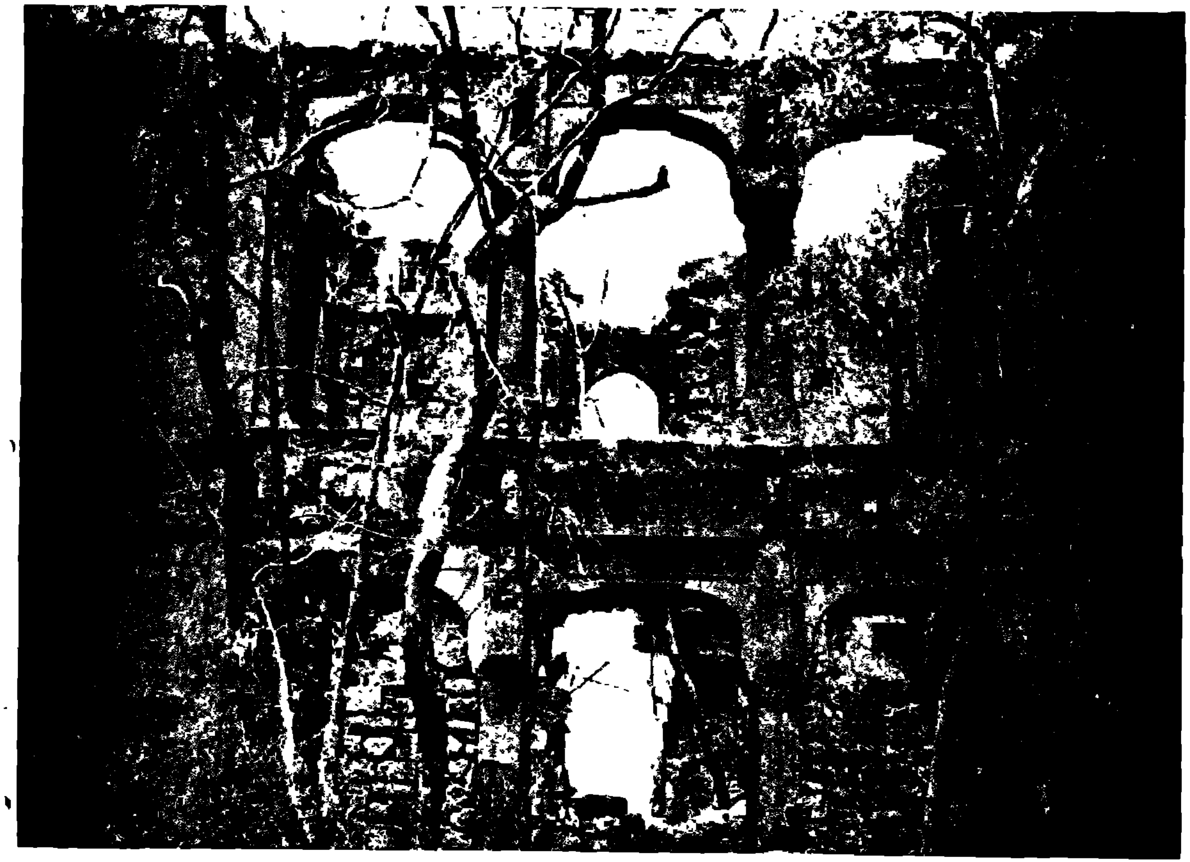
Varaha, Rani Durgavati Temple, Barman



Barman Ghat, flight of steps



Hathi Darwaja, Barman



Ruins of Chauragarh Fort



Another view of ruins, Chauragarh Fort



Prem Narayan Temple, Chauragarh Fort



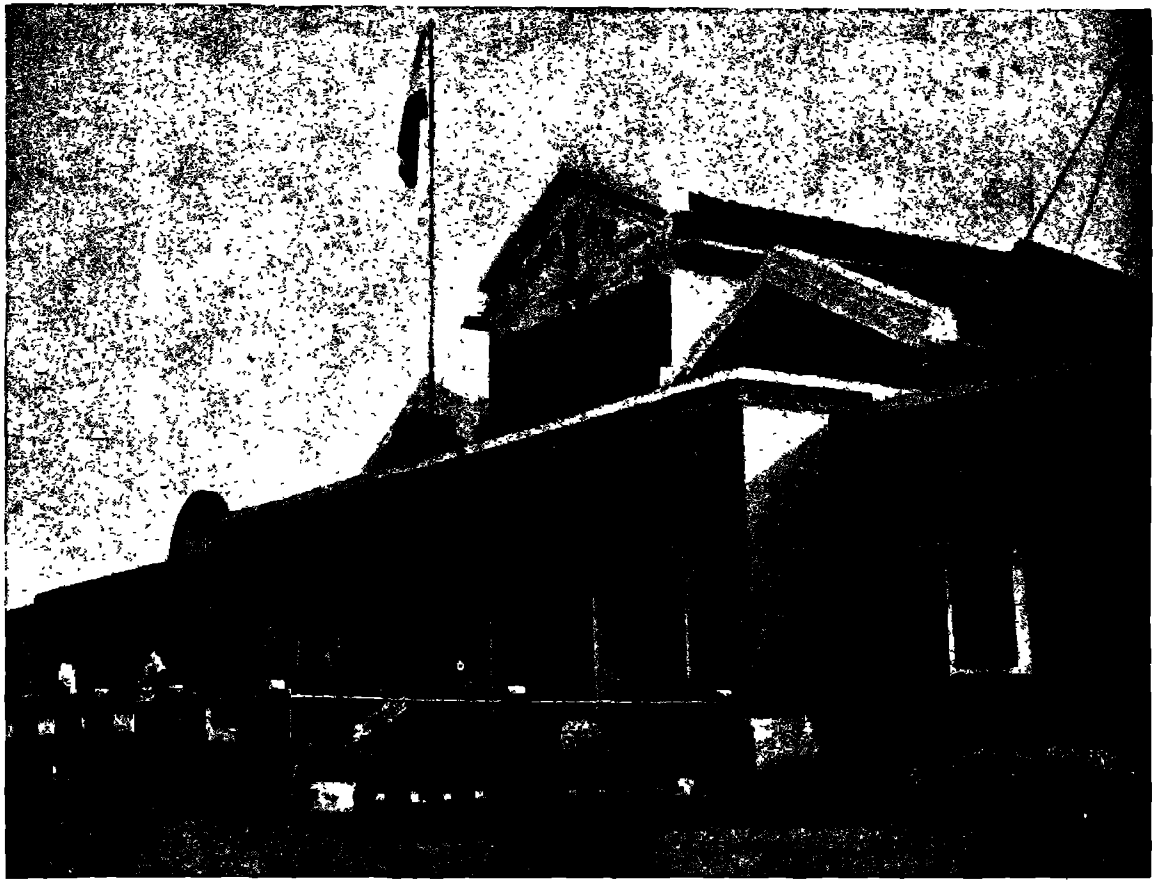
A Fallen Stone Pillar, Chauragarh Fort



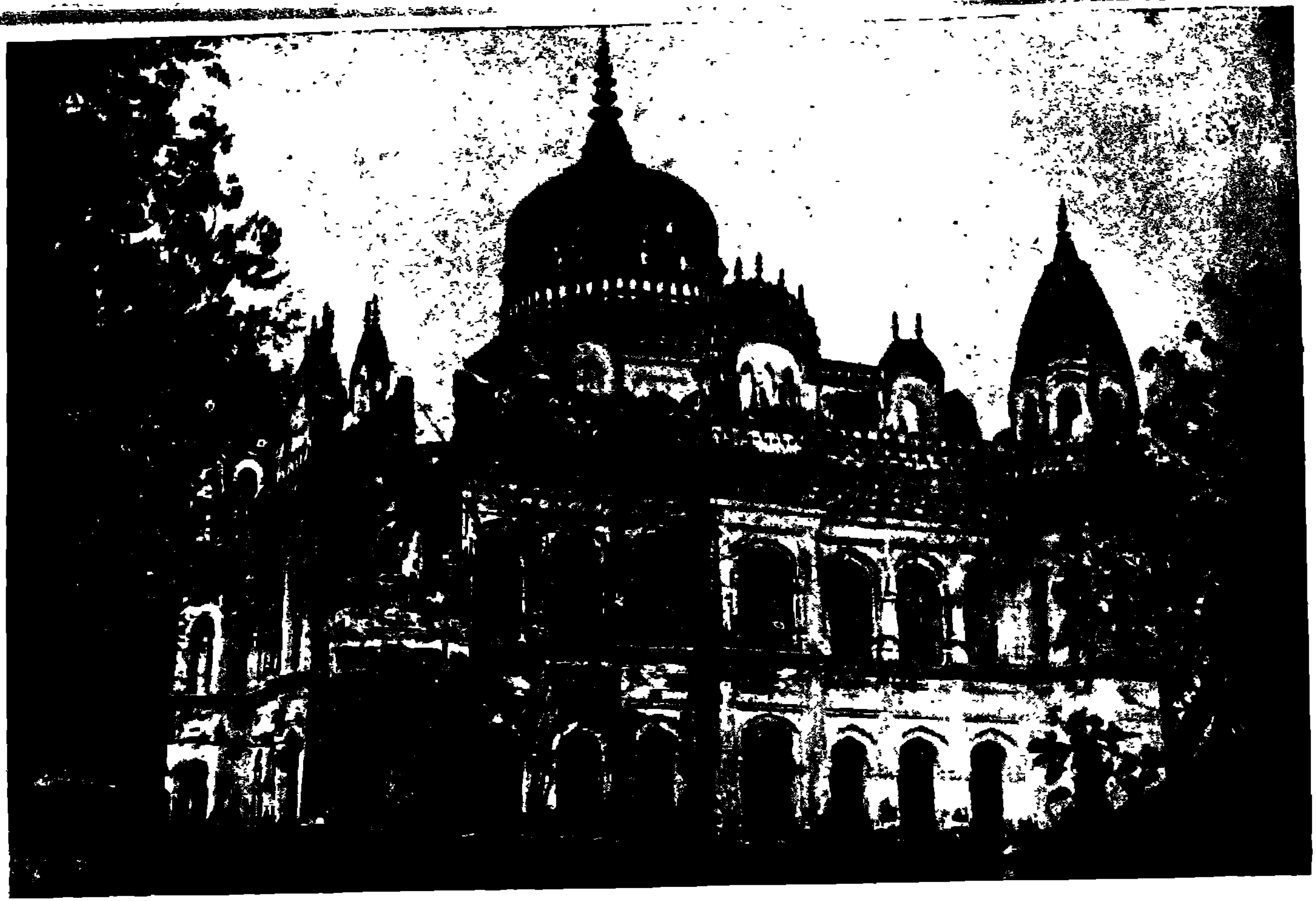
An old sculpture, now installed in Subhash Park, Narsimhapur



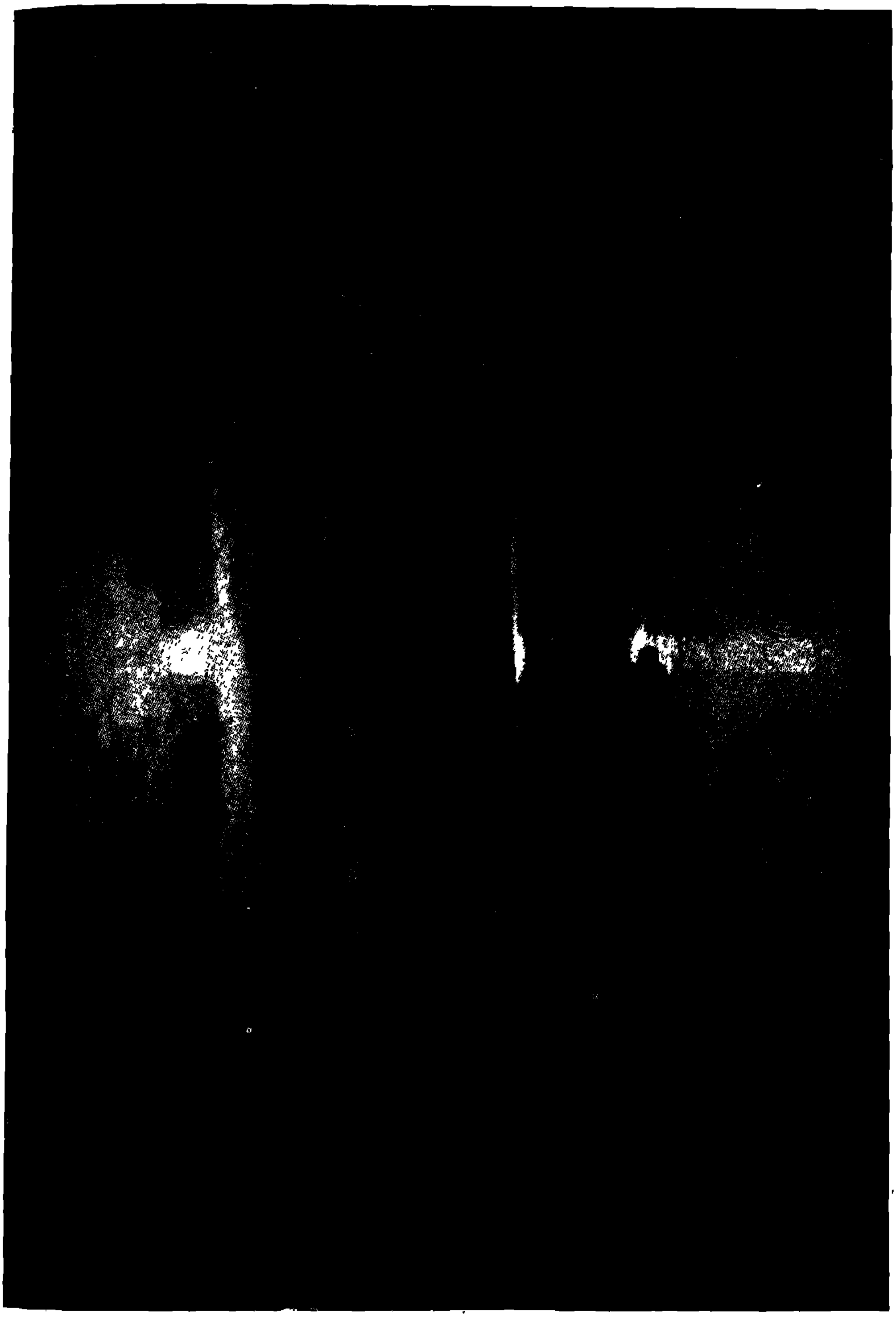
Another sculpture in Subhash Park, Narsimhapur



Borstal Institute, Narsimhapur

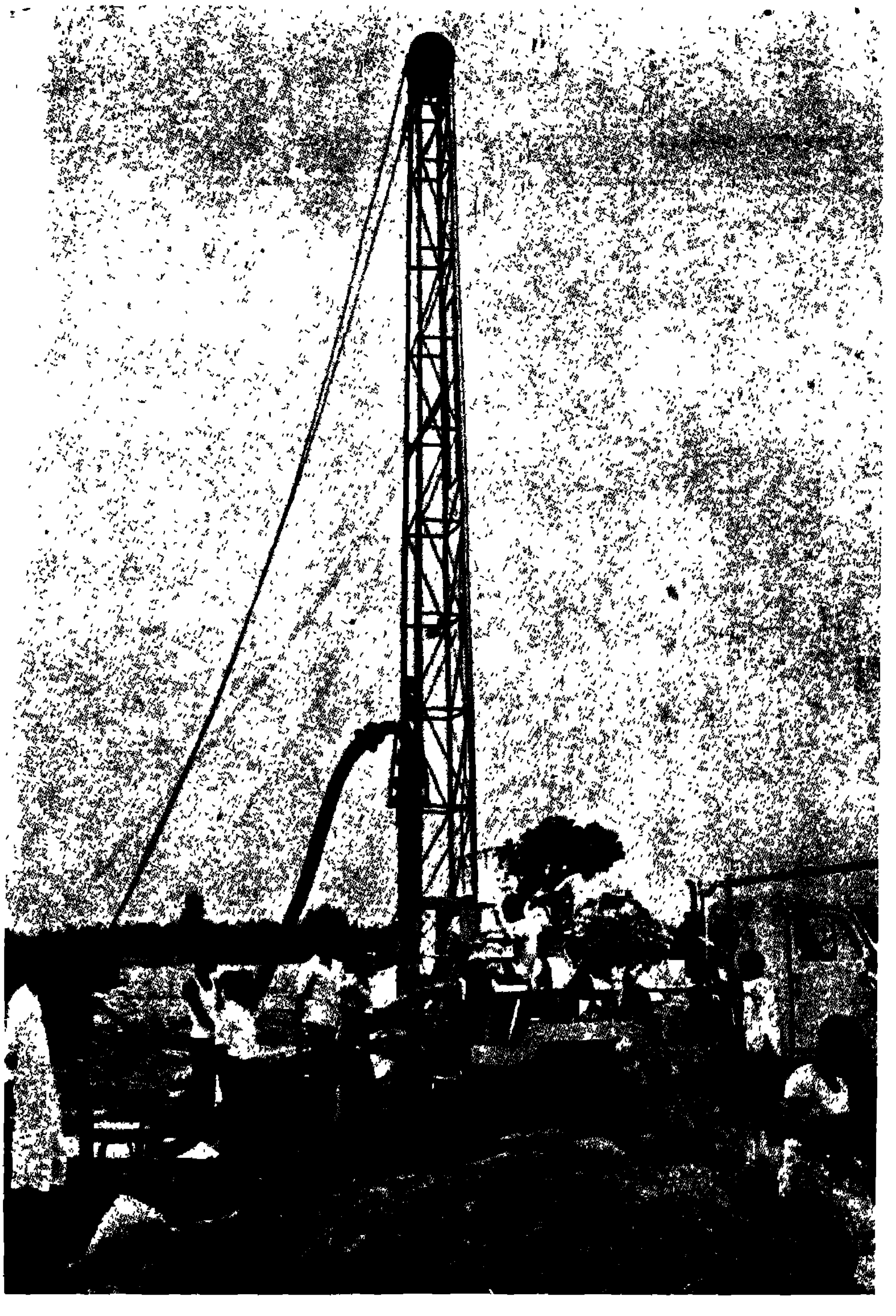


Shiva Temple, Hathanpur





New Road Bridge on the Narmada, Barman



Tubewell Drilling Operations in Agricultural Farm, Narsimhapur